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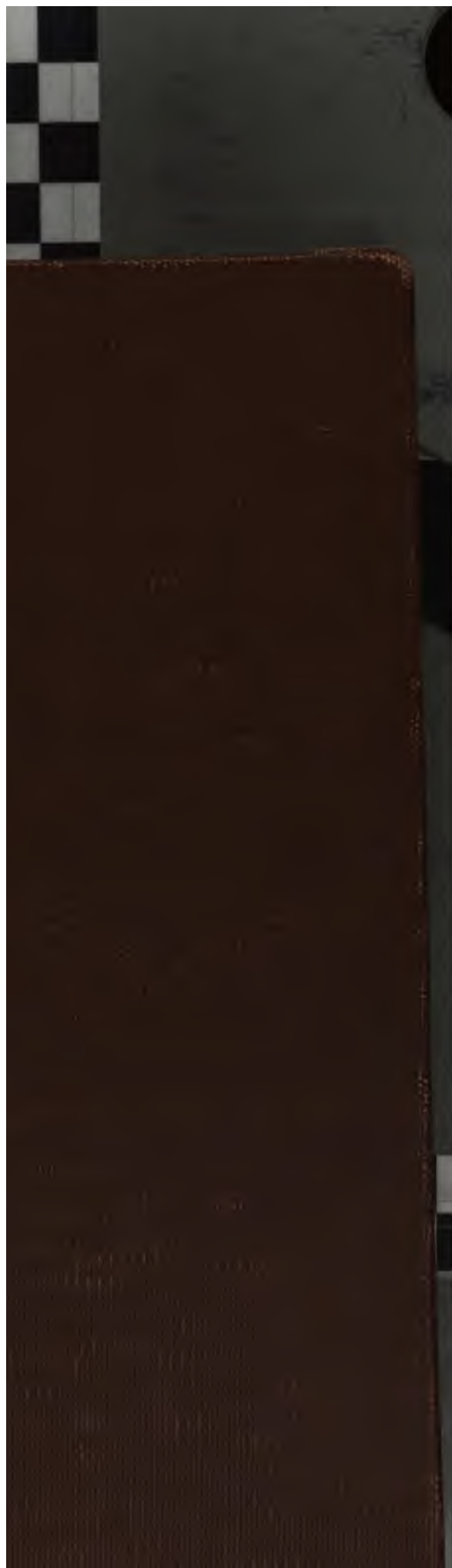
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AN ENGLISH GRAMMAR:

METHODICAL, ANALYTICAL, AND HISTORICAL.

WITH A TREATISE ON THE ORTHOGRAPHY, PROSODY, INFLECTIONS
AND SYNTAX OF THE ENGLISH TONGUE;

*AND NUMEROUS AUTHORITIES CITED IN ORDER OF HISTORICAL
DEVELOPMENT.*

By PROFESSOR MAETZNER,
OF BERLIN.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN, WITH THE SANCTION OF THE AUTHOR,

By CLAIR JAMES GRECE, LL.D.,
FELLOW OF THE PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

IN THREE VOLUMES.—Vol. I.

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PREFACE

BY THE TRANSLATOR.

While the lexicographical department of the English tongue has been cultivated, and further productions are awaited, the grammatical has been almost completely neglected. The works of this class have not striven after a higher aim than the constitution of certain arbitrary formulæ for the attainment of a superficial propriety in the use of the stores of the language; formulæ tried by which the greatest lights of English literature would, almost without exception, stand condemned, while a scientific foundation for the formulæ and rules has hardly been attempted. English grammar has, in fact, under the hands of native grammarians, barely emerged from the region of dogmatism. From this observation the work of Dr. Latham must be excepted, yet the purport of that work is rather archeological than grammatical; and the learned author probably never contemplated that his work would be resorted to for the elucidation of a doubtful construction or idiom.

While Englishmen have thus been content to leave the usage of their own tongue, so far as its more delicate grammatical features are concerned, blind, instinctive and unconscious, the nation in which erudition and scientific philology are, as it were, indigenous, having already subjected the classical tongues to an exhaustive scientific treatment, as well lexicographically as grammatically,

has undertaken the scientific treatment of the grammar of the English tongue. That the grammar of the tongue should have been approached by Germans from that purely scientific point of view, from which natives have not hitherto regarded it, will not surprise us when we consider the relations of German to the classical tongues of antiquity and to our own vernacular. The German is the living classical tongue. While the modern tongues of the West of Europe are constructed out of the débris of Latin, as English is from the débris of Romance and of a decayed and decapitated Germanic idiom, the modern Highdutch, or German, exhibits, even more than the classical tongues themselves, a systematic orderly development from indigenous materials. The growth and development of language, which, to a Frenchman or an Englishman lie external and remote, are, to a German, ready to hand; and, as the cloudless nights of the plains of Shinar prompted the ancient Chaldeans to study the motions of the heavenly host, the purely indigenous structure of their native speech has suggested to the Germans the investigation of the laws of the vocal material in which thought is deposited and communicated.

Moreover, as each new conquest in the territory of the Unknown would be fleeting, but for the invention of terms to impart stability to each acquisition, the people which pursues with success an investigation in a fresh field has the prerogative of creating the appropriate terminology. Such was the prerogative of the Greeks in Logic and Metaphysics, and, if it be allowed to term it a prerogative, in Theology. Such, likewise, was the prerogative of the Romans in Law and administration, and such, in our own age, is that of the Germans in scientific Philology. The instruments of thought which had been invented and perfected in subjecting the classical tongues to analysis stood ready to be applied upon the English. To a foreigner, moreover, the language presents itself denuded of the debasing usages of life, as a homely landscape, beheld from a distant eminence, becomes inviting, so that common place associations do not obtrude themselves upon the enquirer and disturb his contemplation in his purely scientific pursuit.

The Grammar of Professor Mätznér is the fruit of researches

and labours, astounding in their extent and completeness, ranging over the entire history of the English tongue. Previous investigations in the field of Old-French, one of the mightiest tributaries of Modern-English, had paved the way to similar researches in the ancient Germanic idioms, and these have been completed by a thorough study of the standard luminaries of Modern-English literature, with especial regard to the light they were adapted to throw upon the grammatical peculiarities of the tongue. Calculated to supply a void in the linguistic literature of our country, I have, in order to render it accessible to those of our nation who are either unacquainted with the language in which the text is composed or are not sufficient masters of it to read it with facility, ventured upon a translation. I have become painfully conscious with the progress of the work how unequal I am to cope with the difficulties which even a simple translation has presented. The difficulty has been that a translation from a more powerful into a feebler vehicle is sometimes unattainable. The coarser lineaments are capable of reproduction, but the finer traits vanish in the alembic. This will be generally conceded as regards the rendering of the artistic productions of a language, but the conception is prevalent that scientific treatises are capable of being transferred, without loss, from any one cultivated tongue into any other. The difference, however, is one of degree only. Even for purely scientific exposition the members of one cultivated tongue never precisely cover those of another. That the German inherits, as its special prerogative, the terms of scientific philology and of modern metaphysics, the creation of the post-Kantian philosophy, I have already indicated, and this is precisely the walk to which the present work belongs. A cumbrous periphrasis has therefore been in many cases the sole mean of rendering some of the neatest and most exact expressions of the original. In the Prosody, for instance, *An-laut*, *In-laut* and *Aus-laut*, with their paronyms, are frequently recurring. The generic element *laut*, meaning sound, is here differentiated with perfect propriety by the prepositions *an*, signifying inception, *in*, signifying inclusion, and *aus*, signifying finality: so that the first means the sound at the beginning; the second that in the middle; and the latter that at the end of a

syllable. How poor in meaning, notwithstanding their vocal complexity, are the expressions, I will not call them equivalents, by which the poverty of our vernacular has constrained me to render them, is obvious at once. While I am thus sensible of the defects of my translation, I hope that the circumstance above mentioned will identify any hostile criticism which they may provoke.

It is due to the eminent author of the vast monument of industry and erudition which is now ushered into the British public to furnish them with a sketch of his biography. Edward Mätzner, the son of a house-painter, was born on the 25th of May 1805 at Rostock in Mecklenburg. He was a pupil at the gymnasium, or grammar school, of Greifswald in Prussian Pomerania, where he began his career as an author by the publication, in 1822, of a romantic drama in five acts, called *Hermann and Thusnelda*. Philology and theology were the subjects of his studies, both at Greifswald, and afterwards at Heidelberg, but philosophy, or thought in the most elevated and abstract forms of its activity, and philology, or the study of the vehicle of thought in its manifold manifestations, presented to his vigorous and enquiring mind so many more attractions than the theology which had been his destined career that the latter was gradually abandoned. In 1830 he became a tutor at Yverdun in French Switzerland, but quitted that post the following year to become the master of a French gymnasium at Berlin, which, after about another year, he quitted for a gymnasium at Bromberg in Posen. He was constrained by ill-health to give up this appointment in 1834, and remained in private life till 1838, when he accepted the post of director, or head-master, of a collegiate establishment at Berlin for the higher education of girls, which he still fills. The duties of his appointment leave him leisure for the prosecution of his favourite studies and pursuits. His wife Ida, was sister of Dr. Gustav Ebert, now Stadtgerichtsrath, or one of the members of the central court of justice for Berlin, and also one of the members for Berlin in the Prussian House of Representatives. She died in 1870.

His published works are as follows:—

A Latin Essay upon the Homeric Zeus, 1834.

Licurgi Oratio in Leocatem. Berlin, 1836.

Aristophanis Orationes XV. Berlin, 1838.

Aphorismen aus Theodor Parow's Nachlass. Berlin, 1837.

Dinarchi Orationes III. Berlin, 1842.

Ueber volksthümliche Getränke in cultur-historischer Beziehung, in den Verhandlungen der polytechnischen Gesellschaft. Berlin, 1857.

Syntax der Neufranzösischen Sprache. Theil I. Berlin, 1843.
Theil II. 1845.

Ueber das Geschworengericht und das Schuldwesen; in der Zeitschrift für volksthümliches Recht und nationale Gesetzgebung, von Gustav Eberty. Halle, 1844.

Französische Grammatik, mit besonderer Berücksichtigung des Lateinischen. Berlin, 1856.

Altfranzösische Lieder, berichtet und erläutert, nebst Glossar. Berlin, 1853.

Vorwort zu: Aus Stadler's Nachlass. Berlin, 1865.

Englische Grammatik. Theil I. 1860.

—— —. Theil II. Berlin, 1865.

Alt-Englische Sprachproben. 1869.

Several essays and reviews in Noack's Jahrbücher für speculative Philosophie and in Bergmann's philosophische Monatshefte.

Essays in the philosophical periodical: Der Gedanke; edited by Michelet.

He was elected an honorary member of the Philological Society of London in 1869.

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INTRODUCTION.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

The English language, at present diffused not only over Great Britain, Ireland and the surrounding islands, but also throughout the English colonies out of Europe, as well as throughout the commonwealth of North America, is a peculiar mixed language, formed within Great Britain. Its most essential constituent, the Anglosaxon, after the expulsion of the Celtic language, coalesced with Normanfrench elements, and has established itself as its formative power.

The primitive inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland were Celts. Immigrant Belgic populations, which, even before Julius Caesar's time occupied the coasts of Britain, were likewise of Celtic stock, the most civilized among them being the inhabitants of Kent. The Celtic language, peculiar to the whole of western Europe when the Romans took possession of Britain, is still spoken, as the language of the people, in Ireland, in the highlands and islands of Scotland, where subsequent immigrants from Ireland in the third century (Picts and Scots) displaced the ancient Caledonians from the West onwards; also in Wales and in the Isle of Man, as well as in French Lower Brittany. The Celtic literature of the druidical era has perished; a modern one has arisen only under the influence of foreign culture; its monuments extend up to the eighth and ninth centuries, but only in our own age have they become the subject of research. L. Diefenbach and Zeuss, among the Germans, have devoted to it most comprehensive investigations (*Celtica*, in two parts. Stuttgart 1839 and *Grammatica Celtica*. Leipzig 1852. Two parts) while its modern idioms have been variously explored by English and French scholars.

Even in antiquity a distinction was drawn between the two main branches of the Celtic tongue, the Gaelic (the same as Gaedelic, with a mute d) and the British. To the Gaelic branch belong: first, the present Irish, frequently called *Erse*; secondly, the Highland-Scotch, or *Erse*, commonly called the Gaelic; and, thirdly, the *Manx*. To

the **British** branch belong: first, the **Welsh**, or **Cymric** (*Cymraeg* in Wales; secondly, the **Cornish** in Cornwall, which died out in the eighteenth century; and, thirdly, the **Armorican**, (*Breizounek*,) in Brittany.

In English, with the exception of no inconsiderable number of proper names of towns, villages, hills, rivers and lakes, Celtic roots have been but scantily preserved, and of these only a few have been transmitted through the Anglosaxon. In modern times many Celtic words have been taken up by the language of the people.

The British Celts were (from Caesar, 60 years before Christ, to Agricola, 84 years after Christ, subdued by the Romans, with the exception of the mountaineers of Wales and Scotland, who, like their Irish congeners remained unconquered. Roman-British towns soon covered the flourishing land, which was traversed by well designed roads, and peopled partly by Roman colonists, soldiers, and maintained a brisk intercourse with Rome and her provinces. With the Roman constitution, Roman laws and the official use of the Latin tongue, England even received a tinge of Roman science and learning as well as eloquence. Here, however, in striking contrast with its influence in Celtic Gaul, the Latin tongue, although a necessary medium for intelligence in the towns, struck by no means so deep a root among the Celtic population as to become permanently influential in the subsequent formation of the English language. The gradual penetration of Latin into English begins with the introduction of Christianity and of its ecclesiastical language, advances with the development of mediæval science, and continues to grow with the revival of classical culture. The linguistic traces of the Roman dominion are preserved only in names of places (such as those compounded of *caster*, *chester*, *cester* and *coln*, that is, *castra*, *colonia*). After nearly five hundred years possession of the country the Romans recalled their legions to Italy, then hard pressed by barbarians, and thereupon a fresh foreign rule began in Britain.

The beginnings of the Anglosaxon dominion are veiled in darkness. Marauding expeditions of German and Scandinavian mariners to the southern and eastern coasts of Britain began in the third century after Christ: the Romans maintained fleets in the ports of Britain and Gaul against the barbarians; in the South-east strongholds were founded for the defence of the coast. In the reign of Valentinian Theodosius acquires the surname of Saxonicus through his defeat of German pirates, and, even in the fourth century, the seacoast bears the name of *Littus Saxonicum*, which seems to point to its settlement by Germans. The British towns, in 409, expelled their imperial officers and drove away marauding Saxons, inhabitants of the northern coasts of Germany, by force of arms. The prevailing portion of the population of the South-east seems, even before the subsequent immigration of the Saxons and Jutes, to have been of the Saxon stock. Modern enquirers, however, are wrong in ascribing the formation of the Scotch dialect to the contemporaneous invasion of Scotland by the Picts, as if these were a Scandinavian race from the North.

In various expeditions the Angles, Saxons and Jutes, ostensibly called in for succour against the Picts and Scots, came about the

middle of the fifth century to Britain and, after a prolonged contest, possessed themselves of the country. The earliest and most numerous settlers, the Angles, who appeared in the North between the Humber and the wall of Antonine, gave their name to the country (Englaland), although the Celts are wont even now to denote the English by the name of Saxons (Cymric, Seison Saeson). The Angles, for a while the most powerful, subsequently succumbed to the Saxons, of whom the Westsaxons, in 827, in the reign of Egbert, obtained the sovereignty over the whole country, as well as over Wales, while the less numerous Jutes, who are commonly mentioned as the oldest settlers in Kent and the Isle of Wight, played no important part politically. All had come from the northern coast of Germany, from Friesland to the peninsula of Jutland: their tongue, the Lowdutch, was spoken by them in various dialects, which, blended in England more than in their home, still betray their diversity in the popular dialects of modern English.

At the end of the sixth century we find the Angles spread over the greatest portion of the country. In the South of Scotland, between the Tweed and the Frith of Forth, where King Edwin in 620 built Edinburgh, as likewise in Northumberland (that is, Bernicia) also in Cumberland, Durham, (the bishopric) Westmoreland, Lancashire and Yorkshire (that is, Deira) they dwelt under the name of Northumbers. This Northumberland was, from the seventh till the middle of the eighth century, the chief seat of learning. They bore the name of Mercians in Cheshire, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, (Northmercia) and south of the Trent in Lincolnshire, Northamptonshire, Rutlandshire, Huntingdonshire, the northern part of Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Oxfordshire, Gloucestershire, Warwickshire, Worcestershire, Herefordshire, Staffordshire and Shropshire (Southmercia). In Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire and the Isle of Ely, as well as in part of Bedfordshire, they were called East Angles, in Leicestershire, belonging to Mercia, Middleangles.

The Saxons settled in the South, in Sussex, Essex, Middlesex and the south of Hertfordshire, as East Saxons; then, in Surrey, Berkshire, Wiltshire, Dorsetshire, Somersetshire, Devonshire and a portion of Cornwall, as Westsaxons.

Lastly we find the Jutes in Kent, the isle of Wight and a part of Hampshire.

Masters, for the most part, of the soil, and, unlike the Romans, inhabitants of the open country, the language of the conquerors soon penetrated deeply into the life of the people. The Anglo-saxon language and literature flourished, developing even early cultivated prose. The best manuscripts in the Anglosaxon language have their origin in the tenth century; the then predominant dialect, that of Wessex, maintained itself in this century unadulterated; of the earlier language we are ignorant, the earlier works having been moulded by the copyists according to their respective dialects. The decay of the language begins in the eleventh century, under the influence of the Normans. Of foreign elements, the Anglosaxon language after the introduction of Christianity into England in 597, (first into Kent) which spread rapidly in the seventh century, adopted a number of words,

originally taken from the Greek, from the language of the Latin church. A few more Latin words have been transmitted through the Anglosaxon, and have remained in the subsequent English.

From 787 the Danes molested the coasts of England. In the ninth century they possessed themselves of the north, and settled in Northumberland and Mercia. Alfred the Great, involved, like his predecessors, in conflict with them, and, for a while, bereft of his sway at last overcame them, although they afterwards, after fresh arrivals of their countrymen, again in union with Scots and Britons, combated the Anglosaxons, until defeated by Athelstan at Brunaburg. The Danish king Sweno afterwards invades England, and, from the year 994, is repeatedly bought off with Danegelt. In order to avenge the murder of the Danes by Ethelred in 1000, he returns, is reconciled by a fresh atonement, (Mandebod), and dies in a final attempt to conquer the country, in 1014. His son Canute the Great conquers it in 1016, makes himself monarch in 1018, and, being at the same time king of Denmark, he tries to blend both nations into one. His sons Harold and Hardicanute reign in succession till 1042 over England, when Ethelred's son, Edward the Confessor, again comes to the throne, and dies in 1065, and whose successor Harold loses both throne and life in the battle of Hastings against William the Conqueror in 1066.

The language of these Danes, partly from its very nature, was impotent to exercise a transforming influence upon the Anglosaxon tongue, and moreover, such an influence upon the Anglosaxon was, on the part of the decidedly less cultivated Danes, scarcely possible. Even Canute's laws were issued, not in the Danish, but in the Anglosaxon language, and they disclose but few traces of the Norse tongue. Solitary Old-norse words are still to be met with in English and have therefore overpassed the limits of a dialect. But it was erroneous to call, as was formerly done, the speech of the country occupied by the Angles, the Saxon-danish dialect. The memory of the Danish era has been preserved in such vigour that, in Northamptonshire even at the present day, the peasants call every coin found in the earth Dane's money. In the investigation of words, a recourse to the Old-norse idiom is, further of great importance, where the Lowdutch dialects afford no clew.

With the commencement of the Norman rule, in 1066, the period of the violent repression of the refractory Anglosaxon nation, often provoked to open resistance, the Anglosaxon tongue disappeared from literature and from the laws. The French language and customs of the Normans were, even previously, not unknown to the court and to the upper circles of Anglosaxon life, for, during the Danish sway, the Princes, Lords and Clergy had fled to the Normans of the continent, who were superior to themselves in civilization. Normans had been trained at the Anglosaxon court and entrusted with offices: that their influence was disrelished by the people was the occasion of the king's being compelled, in 1052, to banish them. But, after the conquest by William, the estates of the saxon magnates, as well as the archbishoprics, bishoprics and abbeys, soon passed into the hands of Normans. Royal ordinances were now issued in the French tongue, justice was administered in it, and it became the language of

instruction in the schools. The English youth of rank went to France, frequenting especially the university of Paris, in order to acquire its language, science and manners. Even in England French poetry flourished; here, where William the Conqueror's daughter Adela, countess of Blois, herself practised poetry, sojourned the epic poets Richard Wace of Jersey, (died in 1184 in England) Benedict of St. Maure, Gueiner or Gamier of Picardy, (in England in 1182), the didactic writers Philip of Than, (Thaun) from the neighbourhood of Caen, (in England in the 12th century) Geoffrey Gaymar, (12th century) Turold. Even Mary of France, (12th and 13th centuries) lived mostly in England. Along with French writers flourished besides numerous Latin authors, Latin being the language of the Church, of the schools and of learning generally; and in that tongue documents of every kind as well royal ordinances were also in part composed.

The neglect of the Anglosaxon tongue, which even exchanged its letters for the Norman characters, on the part of the upper ranks contributed essentially to its corruption by the French, so that the descendants of the Anglosaxons, as early as the thirteenth century, were hardly able to read their old writers. The common people, however, clung with tenacity to their tongue, which however could not resist the invasion of French words, and, being without a firm support in any popular written language, became more and more fluctuating in its forms, and, particularly, more and more mutilated in its grammatical inflections.

Meanwhile the Anglosaxon element of the Scotch idiom was being reinforced at the time of the conquest of England by numerous Anglosaxon refugees, who retired thither from the cruelty of William, and at their head was Edgar Atheling, whose sister King Malcolm the Third had married. But, even here the French penetrated. A number of Norman barons, disaffected towards their king, emigrated to Scotland, receiving land and vassals from the Scottish king. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries French was likewise in Scotland the language of the court; the speech of the people, on the contrary, maintained itself freer from contact with it. The Scotch dialect, which by its poets, as Barbour, (died in 1395) Dunbar (died about 1520) Lindsay and others, is certainly not wrongly called the English language, generally avoided French elements far more than did the English dialect, although a dirge on the death of Alexander the Third (in 1285) is not free from French ingredients.

In spite of the preponderance of the Norman-french language over the despised and degraded Anglosaxon, it was destined for the latter so far to overpower the former that in a certain peculiar mixture of both the Anglosaxon essentially determined the character of this new tongue. To this result political relations especially contributed. An important share is assuredly due to the spirit of the Anglosaxon constitution and to the free communities, which resisted victoriously both Danish rudeness and Norman chivalry, and shewed themselves effective in the development of the House of Commons, where, even in the reign of the first Edward, the English language began to strive with the French for the mastery, although *Magna Charta* was not translated into the language of the people till 1259. The

loosening of the connection of England with France through the loss of Normandy in 1203, and its total severance in the reign of Edward the Second, were also of importance to the language, as was also the struggle with France, with which ceased the education of Norman youth in France. The revival of the ancient schools, and the renovated institutions at Oxford and Cambridge, under the name of universities, contributed, at least mediately, to pave the way to a national culture. Even the mysteries, hitherto Latin, appear from, and perhaps even before Edward the Third (1327—77) in the language of the English people. The knowledge of French becomes lost, even among the educated, with striking rapidity. The enmity towards the French nation seemed to bring about a contempt for their language, so that in Chaucer's age (died 1400) French, was no longer spoken with purity by the upper ranks, which at this very time ceased to be the language of instruction. Under these circumstances, in 1362, appeared Edward the Third's order, drawn up in the French language, that all suits pending in the kings courts should be pleaded in English, although recorded in French, whereas the pleadings theretofore had been debated in the French tongue, and the records drawn up in Latin or French. In the House of Lords French was certainly spoken till 1483, for statutes were issued in French till then.

The language which now began to take the place of the French is to be regarded as a full grown language, the **English**. Its formation is preceded by a period of transition, that of the **Half-Saxon** (in the 12th century) which is expressed in literature by the extensive writings of Layamon and Orme (whence the name *Ormulum*). The language is already called English (*Ice Patt Dis Ennglissh hafe sett* (compare *Ormulum* in Thorpe *Annal. Angl. sax.* p. 174). It has already taken up and assimilated many French words, perceptibly altered the former spelling and treated the alliteration with neglect. The declination exhibits the mixture of the single form with the strong and weak Anglosaxon form. The plural begins, with the abandonment of the distinctions of gender and declination, to adopt the plural in *s*. The forms of the pronoun still resist the complete obliteration of their terminations. In the adjective we often perceive the confounding of the strong and the weak form, but frequently also the strong and the weak form stunted. In the verb, along with the termination of the plural of the present indicative *ad*, *ed*, the termination *en* already shews itself; the prefix *ge* in the perfect participle of the strong verbs appears commonly in the form *y*, *i*, and the *n* of the infinitive, and the participle of the strong verbs is frequently dropped. The weakening of the unaccented and especially of the final vowels of all parts of speech and, generally, the shortening of words is observable even in the Halfsaxon.

The **English language**, in the stricter sense, begins in the thirteenth century. Its further and more or less constant development is nowhere abruptly broken, but in long spaces of time wide differences become manifest; wherefore we have to divide the period of the Old English and that of the New English from each other, the boundary being generally coincident with the commencement of modern culture.

Under the name **Old English** we comprehend the linguistic period

from the thirteenth century to the age of Elizabeth (1558). If, within this space of time we would distinguish an Old-English period (1250—1350) and a Middle English (1350—1558), we must consider on the other hand that, in point of fact, no epoch of change in the forms of the English language occurred in the middle of the fourteenth century, although the age of Edward the Third gave a new impulse to English literature. Those who wish to specify sharp distinctions in the forms of the language of these periods are justly in perplexity. No new principle of formation enters into the language, no one dialect is raised decidedly into a literary standard, it being currently said of the language, even by Chaucer: Ther is so great diversite in English and in writing of our tong p. 332 Tyrwh., with which Trevisa also agrees in his translation of Higden's Polychronicon (1387). And, if the formation and renovation of the English tongue is still ascribed, as it was by Skelton, to the poets Gower, and to Chaucer, the unsurpassed during two centuries, (compare Skelton l. 75 and 377), this refers to the syntactic and stylistic aspect of the tongue more than to its forms and their mutations. Moreover we shall, in the exposition of the Old-english forms, have the authors of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries especially in our eye, who, in regard to the Anglo-saxon vocabulary and to the strong verbal forms still preserved, are, of course, richer than subsequent ones; in which respect Skelton might say that Gower's English was in his age obsolete; as also generally that, at the end of the Old English period, the linguistic revolution was so accelerated that Caxton could say, in 1490, that the language was then very different from that in use at the time of his birth in 1412.

The **Modern English** language, further developed under the influences of the art of printing, of newly reviving science and of the Reformation, and, from the sixteenth century, methodically cultivated, is, however, separated from the Old English by no sharp line of demarcation. Spencer and Shakespeare, who, in part consciously, affect archaisms, stand on the confines and at the same time reach back beyond them. Yet the language now gradually gains more and more in orthographical and grammatical consistency, although the golden age of Elizabeth is not at the same time the age of classical correctness of the language, chiefly because the study of the ancient languages operated immediately more upon the form than upon the substance of the literature. Nevertheless this study soon contributed to fix also the English prosody, which, in Old English, was fluctuating. Although the spelling has continued in certain particulars uncertain and complicated even to the present day, the settlement of the orthography, prosody and grammar since the beginning of the seventeenth century is an essential mark of distinction between the Old English and the Modern English. Herewith is associated the securing of a literary idiom, to which contributed not so much the translations from the classical languages and from the Italian, as the translation of the Bible, composed by order of James the First, (1607—11) still the authorized one, and not only an excellent work for its own age, but, even for the present, a model of classical language. The home of the present literary dialect is moreover universally shifted to the

ancient confines of the Angles and West Saxons. Some place it in the dialect of Northamptonshire (Thom. Sternerberg); others, in that of Leicestershire (Guest); yet the same freedom from provincialisms is also attributed to the dialects of Bedfordshire and Herefordshire. The language of the educated is at present every where under the influence of the literary language, and it is a matter of course that the living speech of the inhabitants of the capital is regarded as the standard for cultivated intercourse, even in regard to pronunciation.

Although not unimportant, the invasion of numerous Latin words in the sixteenth century is of only subordinate moment in determining the character of the language. Many of these, called "inkhorn words" by the purists of the time, have been preserved. Not more important is the subsequent naturalization of Latin and Greek words through Milton, (1608—74) and the extension of the domain of French words in English, much that was repugnant having been rejected in more modern times, and English being especially adapted, from the blunting of its terminations, to assimilate foreign words of all kinds. A more essential distinction between Modern English and Old English is the loss of German words, particularly of strong forms. Even in the sixteenth century Puttenham (*Art of English poetry*, 1598) warns his readers against old grandsire words and phrases, and dictionaries down to the present time progressively expel obsolete matter from the language of the day. Moreover, Lexicography itself, (which began towards the end of the fifteenth and beginning of the sixteenth century, at first as English-Latin Lexicography, and in the interest of the acquisition of foreign languages, as of Latin, Greek and the modern tongues, but from the seventeenth and especially the eighteenth century strove to collect a vocabulary of the English language, with a regard, at the same time, to the pronunciation,) has essential merits as to the correctness of the written and spoken language. A final distinction between Modern and Old-English is the manifold stylistic cultivation of the language in all departments of poetry and prose, whereas Old-English, particularly in prose narrative, lagged behind the endeavour for correctness and variety.

As principal constituents of the English language in regard to its material are to be specified the words of Anglosaxon and Norman-french origin, with which are associated modern words borrowed from the Latin, Greek and Romance, and a few Germanic and even extra-European tongues. In spite of the lessening of the Anglosaxon and the growth of foreign elements, the Anglosaxon is still regarded as the main stock of English. According to some, of 38,000 words regarded as genuine English, the number of Anglosaxon in the English of the present day amounts to about 23,000, or nearly $\frac{2}{3}$. According to Chambers, there are 53,000 English words, of which 3,820 are primitive, amongst which 2513 are common to the English and the Germanic and 1,250 to the English and the classical tongues. According to Thommerel, the number of words originally Anglosaxon is 12,000. However it be, the mixture of ingredients in writings of different kinds is very different, so that in works strictly scientific the number of the Anglosaxon is the smallest, whereas in other prose works, as well as in poetry and in common life in general, the Anglosaxon prevail, although

even here the cosmopolitan intercourse of modern times affords increased access to foreign ingredients.

With regard to linguistic forms Anglosaxon has operated along with French, yet in a greatly preponderant measure. English owes to Anglosaxon the remnants of inflective terminations in the noun, the verb and the pronoun, likewise its articles, its numerals, its chief store of particles in words of relation and in conjunctions, also the comparative and superlative forms of the adjective, and its adverbial formation. The Anglosaxon has bequeathed the facility of compounding words, and a considerable number of forms of derivation, and lastly has chiefly determined the formation of its periods. The influence of French shews itself first in regard to sounds: to it is perhaps to be ascribed the silence of the *l* before other consonants, like, *f*, *v*, *k*, *m*; as also the partial silence of the *h* and *gh*. It has also, perhaps, accelerated the silence of the final *e*, which in Chaucer is still often sounded. The introduction of the sibilant sound of *c = s* is also due to the influence of French, likewise the diffusion of the letters *z* and *v* instead of the original *f*. It may also have cooperated in consigning to the Anglosaxon *s* almost exclusively the formation of the plural. It has further conveyed to English a number of forms of terminations, which have given the language a fresh mobility, as they are often joined on to Germanic roots. Of no slight import is the influence of French upon the collocation of English words, whereby a freedom, not possessed by the German, is produced.

The blending of the Germanic with the Romance imparts to English in general a richness of expression for all shades of thought, possessed by no other modern language. Its Germanic prosody makes English more adapted for poetical forms than French, to which, however, it owes in part the diffusion of rhyme instead of alliteration, although rhyme was not quite foreign to Anglosaxon. With the boldness and force of Germanic speech English unites the flexibility and polish of the Romance languages, and only the stunting of the words and the poverty in inflections, which frequently cause a monosyllabic barking, obstruct occasionally the artistic cultivation of the language.

The English language, in the wider sense, is primarily divided into English, in the narrower sense, and Scotch.

a. English, even in the olden time split up into many dialects, most of them appearing also in literature, has, even now, numerous popular dialects, the investigation of which, in regard to sound, to the grammar and to the vocabulary is important both for the history of the language and for philology. Collections have, in modern times in particular, begun to be made of their vocabulary, so rich in what has been abandoned by the modern language. Although Anglosaxon, judged by its manuscripts, did not possess numerous dialects, almost every English county has preserved its own dialect, sometimes even divided into several shades. These popular dialects are distinguished from each other and from the literary language; firstly and chiefly, by their vocalization; secondly, by the transmutation of many consonants; thirdly, by the rejection and transposition of consonants; by the preservation, not only

of Old-germanic, but also Old-french words; fifthly, by the preservation of Germanic strong flexional forms, as well as by the interchange of strong and weak forms. Halliwell, in his collection of archaic and provincial words, has exhibited 51,027 forms of words, and numerous comparisons of words of various dialects are gradually offering more and more support to research.

The present popular dialects are divided, as they were by Verstegan (in his *Restitution* in 1634) into three groups; the **Western**, the **Southern** and the **Northern**. In the fourteenth century Halliwell fancies there were a Southern, a Middle and a Northern Group, of which the Southern at present remains only in the West.

The **Western group** is most sharply expressed in the counties of Dorset, a part of Somerset, Devon and Cornwall; less so in Wiltshire, Berkshire and Oxfordshire, and in Gloucestershire, the present dialect whereof is still similar to that of old Robert of Gloucester. Apart from their peculiar vocabulary, these dialects are seemingly characterized by the lengthening of the vowels, the broadening of the diphthongs, the softening of *s* into *z* and *f* into *v*, as also by suppressed pronunciation without the full opening of the mouth.

The so called **Southern** dialects may be divided into three branches. One begins with Kent, wherewith is allied Sussex, Surrey and Hampshire on the one hand, and Essex on the other, so that the dialects pass partly into the Western and partly into the East-anglian. The East-anglian form the second branch, which shews itself most decidedly in Norfolk and Suffolk, but to which also Cambridgeshire and Huntingdonshire, and, as cognate, Leicestershire and Rutlandshire are attached. These dialects are thin and have something of singsong, whence the Suffolk "whining", and form a sharp contrast to the full-toned northern dialects. The midland dialects are to be regarded as the third branch, as, that of Herefordshire, Warwickshire and Northamptonshire, also at present that of Nottinghamshire, where the northern dialect was formerly native. They form the transition to the northern dialects.

The **Northern group**, which we may call the Northumbrian, exhibits itself most decidedly in the dialects of Northumberland, Durham and the North Riding of Yorkshire, and in Cumberland and Westmoreland. Broad, full-toned, guttural and passing into the Scottish, it is hardest in Northumberland and most monotonous in Durham. In Lincolnshire, where a northern dialect is divided from a southern one by the river Witham, the latter resembles the Eastanglian. The dialect of Lancashire recedes in the West from that of Yorkshire, but, like this, favours the *a* sound instead of *o* and *ou*, and puts the *o* sound in the place of *ea* and *oi*, and hardens the final *g* and *d* into *k* and *t*. These dialects, the most remote from the literary English, have enjoyed the most especial lexicographic research.

b. The **Scotch** language, or the speech of the Scottish lowlands, which has maintained its Germanic character with the greatest fidelity, is distinguished from the English by a broader vocalization, especially by the frequent employment of the obscure *o* instead of *o*, of *ai* instead of *oa* and *o*, the preservation of the guttural *ch*,

English *gh*, and the more frequent retention of the original *g* and *k*, likewise the frequent rejection of the final *ll*, of *d* after *n* at the end of a word, likewise of *g* in the termination *ing*. It often exchanges the participial termination *ed* for *it*, preserves many archaic forms and is distinguished by the employment of particular derivative terminations, such as the *ukie*, from *ock*: The Scotch language kept pace with the English as a literary dialect till the sixteenth century; but from that time the English outstripped it. Queen Elizabeth no longer understood the Scotch letters of Mary Stuart in the same age when it seemed to the publisher of Chaucer (Speght), in 1602, needful to subjoin a glossary of Chaucer's obscure words, which had not appeared necessary in the editions of 1542 and 1561, notwithstanding Spencer's Shepheardes Calendar in 1579 needed a glossary by reason of its "Chaucerisms". With the union of the two kingdoms in 1603, the removal of the court to England and the neglect of the Scotch by the upper ranks, the language lost its literary dignity and subsided into a mere popular dialect. It raised itself indeed, particularly with the commencement of the eighteenth century, (Allan Ramsay born 1686) in popular poetry into a certain finish in a narrow department; without, however, again acquiring the importance of a language of varied cultivation. In its stationariness the Scotch, originally very close to the English, has preserved many materials of speech which have been abandoned in English. The Scotch has hitherto become more the subject of lexicographical than of scientific grammatical research.

The forms of English in the countries which have received it from its original home are hardly to be considered English dialects in the strict sense, although there it receives a provincial cast in the mouth of the people. The English of North America, for instance, which, like the speech of all colonies, has to keep up its intimate connection with the mother country chiefly through the language of books, is gradually diverging in pronunciation. It retains words already obsolete in England, elevates particular English provincialisms into expressions of universal currency, assigns new and peculiar expressions to many old words, and takes up many words from the American languages. The language of conversation in the colonies suffers everywhere from similar defects, but the general physiognomy of the tongue remains the same.

Linguistic varieties, such as the thieves' language of England, the "flash" or "cant" of thieves and beggars, likewise the mob language of the populace of great cities, a mixed language of divers dialects and, partly, of arbitrary formations, wherein words are employed with new and peculiar meanings, (slang words and phrases) do not come under review as dialects. The pronunciation of the common people of the great towns, such as that of the cockney speakers of London, has also no dialectic nature, properly speaking; like as the perversion of the vocalization and the guttural tinge to the dentals and to *r*, except at the end of a syllable, with the Irishman is to be ascribed to the influence of the Celtic, which also imparts a particular quality to the pronunciation of Wales.

PART I.

THE DOCTRINE OF THE WORD.

Grammar, or the doctrine of language, treats of the laws of speech, and, in the first place, of the **Word**, as its fundamental constituent, with respect to its **matter** and its **form**, in **prosody**, or the doctrine of sounds, and **morphology**, or the doctrine of forms, and then of the **combination** of words in speech, in **syntax**, or the doctrine of the joining of words and sentences.

FIRST SECTION.

PROSODY, OR, THE DOCTRINE OF SOUNDS.

I. THE WORD, ACCORDING TO ITS INGREDIENTS.

THE ALPHABET.

The English alphabet, the totality of its phonetic signs, has, under the influence of Norman French, instead of the gradually expiring Anglosaxon, become the same as the Romance. It contains at present the following signs, according to the usual succession:

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z

Their names are expressed by the following english designations:

ai, bee, cee, dee, ee, ef, jee, aitch, i or eye, jay, kay, el, em, en, o, pee, cue, ar, ess, tee, u or you, vee, double u, eks, wy, zed.

These phonetic signs represent, either singly or combined, as *ch*, *sh*, *gh*, *th*, the various sounds of speech; combined letters also serve to represent simple vocal sounds, as *ee*, *ie*, *ea*, &c. The letters *y* and *w* at the end of a word, serve as consonants, else as vowels, although *w* only in conjunction with other vowels.

THE VOWELS IN GENERAL.

The **vowel** is the simple sound, which, without the cooperation of the moveable instruments of speech, proceeds out of the larynx through the more or less enlarged cavity of the mouth. Where two simple vowel-sounds flow together, there arises a double-sound, or **diphthong**, whose first or second constituent has the preponderance in pronunciation.

English presents more than any other tongue the striking phenomenon that the simple vowel-sound is represented by more than one vowel sign; **diphthongs**, on the contrary, by a simple sign; and totally different sounds are also often denoted by the same vowel

signs. These contradictions in orthography are partly the result of adhesion to a written language no longer according with modern pronunciation, partly also of the crossing of the Germanic and the French orthography, although the Germanic tinge remained of decided influence even in the French and other constituents of the language, so that we still find the general phonetic shades of the language in the Lowdutch and Scandinavian dialects of the present day.

Triphthongs, or three vowels flowing together, are unknown to English: In such words as *buoy*, *u* is either cast out or passes into the half consonant *w*.

Such combinations of vowels as *ea* are falsely called diphthongs in English and such as *eau* triphthongs:

English, like Anglosaxon, distinguishes short and long vowels, and gives even to vowels originally French the full value of the Germanic length.

In partial illustration of the modern English orthography the Anglosaxon vocalization may serve. *a* (*ā*), *e* (*ē*), *i*, *o*, *u* and *y* (this allied to *u* and falsely confounded with *i*) serve to represent short vowel sounds: the diphthongs *ēa* ((*ie* and *ēo* (*io*, *ie*) are to be regarded as half-lengths. The long vowels are *ā*, *æ*, *ē*, *ī*, *ō*, *ū*, *ȳ*; diphthongs *ea* and *eo* (*io*) along with which *ei*, *eu*, *ie*, *oe* and *oi* sometimes appear, mostly in Anglian dialects.

Instead of long vowels, reduplications of vowels are also found, which Old English still frequently shews (for instance *hii* = *heo*, in Robert of Gloucester) but which Modern English, with the exception of *ee*, *oo* (and even the latter shortened) has abandoned, although even in Old English the extensions *ee*, *ea*, are frequently denoted by a simple *e*. The Old English vocalization also frequently departs otherwise from the modern English, as will be pointed out below in the exposition of the origin of the sounds.

Considered phonetically, the decided vocalization of Modern English is divided into twelve vowels (of which six long ones stand opposed to six short ones) and four diphthongs.

To these may also be joined, as a final vowel sound, the obscured sound of glibly spoken vowels in the unaccented syllable, which modern English Phoneticians denote by *uh*, and which does not lie on the scale of vowels from *i* to *u*, with greater or less enlargement of the cavity of the mouth, but arises from the mere opening of the mouth accompanied by the expulsion of a sound. This sound however nowise corresponds to all obscurations of sound. The shades of sound arising from the contact of those vowels with consonants are not taken into consideration. Neither are those combinations in which the unaccented *e* and *i* before other vowels pass into the consonant *y*, and, in union with preceding consonants, produce a partial sibilant, reckoned among diphthongs. Special and rare combinations, especially in foreign words, have also been passed over.

The phonetic system above touched upon, with its notation by letters, is represented in the following table. The sound is denoted by letters borrowed from other Germanic tongues.

Short vowels.	Long vowels.
1. <i>ī, y</i> rarely <i>ui, ie, ee</i> (been) Highdutch <i>ī</i>	<i>ō, ea, ee, i, ie</i> , rarely <i>ei, ey, ay</i> , (in quay) Highdutch <i>ī</i> or <i>ie</i>
2. <i>ø, ea; i</i> and <i>y</i> before <i>r</i> rarely <i>ie</i> , <i>ai</i> (said) <i>a</i> (ate) Highdutch <i>ø</i>	<i>ā, ai, ay, ea, ei, ey</i> rarely <i>e</i> (cf. <i>ere</i>) Highdutch <i>ō, ee</i>
3. <i>ā</i> Highdutch betwixt <i>ā</i> and <i>ø</i>	<i>ā, au</i> (before <i>n</i>) Highdutch <i>ā</i>
4. <i>ō, ou</i> rarely <i>a</i> (malt) swedish <i>ä</i>	<i>ā, au, aw, ou</i> , rarely <i>oa</i> (broad) Lowdutch <i>ā</i> , swedish <i>ä</i>
5. <i>ū, o</i> rarely <i>oo</i> (blood) Highdutch betwixt <i>ō</i> and <i>ō</i>	<i>ō, oa, oe, oo, ou, ow</i> rarely <i>ew</i> (sew) Highdutch <i>ō</i>
6. <i>u, oo, ou</i> (could, should) Highdutch <i>ū</i>	<i>ū, ue, ui, o, oo, ou, ew</i> rarely <i>oe</i> (shoe) Highdutch <i>ū</i>
Diphthongs	
<i>i, î, (rarely ei, ey, ai)</i> Highdutch <i>āi</i> (<i>ei</i>)	
<i>ou, ow</i> Highdutch <i>āū</i>	
<i>oi, oy</i> Highdutch <i>ōi</i>	
<i>û, ue, ui, ew, eu</i> Highdutch <i>iū</i> .	

As with the treatment of the primitive vowels in writing, their pronunciation has likewise the most consistency and decision in the accented syllable, whereas the unaccented syllables, from which that receiving a subordinate accent forms of course an exception, have suffered more or less obscuration of vocalization. The difficulty of apprehending and representing these dimmings explains the diversity in the views of orthoepists about such sounds and their notation by signs.

THE PRONUNCIATION OF THE VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS IN DETAIL.

In the employment of the same simple or combined vowels for different sounds, as also of different vowels signs for the same sounds, we annex the discussion of the pronunciation to the series of phonetic signs *i, y, e, a, o, u*, by representing, with each of these, its combinations according to their phonetic value. In the first place we discuss the sounds in the accented, and then in the unaccented syllable. With regard to the temporal duration of the sound, we distinguish long and short syllables in the seat of accent, while, in the unaccented syllable, length, more or less weakened, may even be made shortness, and shortness may be suppressed into glib shortness, apart from the complete silence of the vowel.

With the seat of accent the quantity, and therefore also the phonetic tinge of the vowel, stand in the most intimate connection; but, along with these, the final sound of the syllable in general cooperates

essentially in the determination of its quantity. The subordinate accent commonly operates analogously to the chief accent.

The **close** syllable, that is, the syllable ending in a consonant, with a simple vowel, presents itself in every seat of accent as predominantly **shortness**, and the same is true of the unaccented syllable. But the syllable with a final consonant, followed by a mute *e* (organic or unorganic) is in general long, which however is only in a limited measure true of the unaccented syllable. The exceptions are chiefly syllables with a final *l* and *r*, more rarely *m* and *n*.

The **open** syllable on the contrary, that is, the syllable ending with a vowel, is **long** in words in which the accent falls on the ultimate or sole syllable (perispomēna), as well as in those that have the accent on the penultimate (properispomēna); whereas the antepenultimate accented syllables give words with a **short** accented syllable (proparoxytones). In this last position *u*, however, forms an exception; as do *e*, *a* and *o* in the case when the succeeding final consonant is followed by a double vowel (in derivative syllables) whose first is an *i* or *e* (as *ian*, *ial*, *iaous*, *ean*, *eous*, *eor*, &c.) mostly remain long also in the antepenultimate syllable, whereas this is not the case with *i*. Since, in the double syllables indicated, *e* and *i* have the inclination to blend as semi consonants with the following vowel, words of this sort are mostly to be regarded as properispomēna. What is true of the vowel of the antepenultimate has also application to any syllable situate still further back, when it receives the accent. Another series of exceptions is formed by those penultimate open syllables (mostly with *i*, *e*, *a*) which remain short.

In all accented syllables the vowel preceding another vowel is wont to be long. This lengthening usually remains in the unaccented syllable also; but, in a syllable originally unaccented, a vowel before another vowel is short.

Conformably with these general views, a change in the quantity of the vowel frequently shews itself in derivations, in which the accented syllable remaining open is encumbered with final syllables: compare *hēro* — *hēroine*, *condīgn* — *condignity*, *profāne* — *profānity*, *austēre* — *austērity*, *týrant* — *týranny*, *abdōmen* — *abdōminal*, *foreknōw* — *foreknōwledge*; as also when the accent is pushed forwards or backwards from the original long syllable, the length often shortens: compare *inspīre* — *inspiration*, *discīple* — *discipline*, *admīre* — *ádmirable*.

Yet a fixed principle is not carried out here.

The apprehension of the short vowel as the vowel of the close syllable has led to the phonetic peculiarity that, where the open syllable is sharpened, or short, the pronunciation draws the initial consonant of the following syllable immediately on to the vowel (Attraction) and, as it were doubles it, like as writing also after a short vowel frequently doubled consonants originally single (compare *waggon* with *wagon*; Anglosax: *vāgen*; *addice* Anglosax: *adesse*; *matter* French *matière*) and in derivations from oxytones the single consonant is doubled: *wit* — *witty*; *begin* — *beginner*; *abet* — *abettor*: on which account orthoepists, to denote the division of syllables for pronunciation,

put the accentual mark for shortness after what is, properly speaking, an initial consonant: compare *sat* in.

I, Y. These two phonetic signs, though often of very different origin, are essentially shared between the sounds of the Highdutch **I** (seldom **I**) and the Highdutch diphthong **ai** or **ei**, as the Old- and Middle Highdutch long **i** is often represented as **ei** in modern Highdutch.

A) In the accented syllable i answers to

1. the short i

***) in the close syllable:** thin, fringe, shrill, filch, milk, mist, did, fit, stinking, industry, incapacity.*)

Except **α.** here the accented syllables pronounced as the diphthongs, **ei** with silent **gh** (in *gh, ght*): **nigh**, **thigh**, **tigh**, **high**; **blight**, **plight**, **fight**, **fright**, **Wight** &c.; with silent **g** (in *ign*): **malign**, **condign**, **sign**, **assign**; with silent **c** (in *ct*): **indict**; with mute **s** in **isle**, **island**, and **viscount**, mostly with their derivatives, in which the consonant remains mute and the accent does not advance. Compare on the other hand **condignity**, **malignant**, **assignation**, **assignée**, of which only the last retains the silent **g** notwithstanding the entrance of the **i**, as in **sevennight**, which is pronounced **señnit**:

further, in roots with a final **nd**, like **bind**, **find**, **blind**, **kinc** &c., to which is added **nt** **pint**, and those with **ld**: **mild** **child**, **wild**, in whose derivatives however **i** appears instead of **ī** compare **wilderness**, **children** and the compound **kindred**. According to Smart **childe** is sounded with a short **i**, according to others with **ī**. Here also an **exception** is formed by **wind** = **ventus**, with its derivatives, as distinguished from **wind** (with **ī**) with its derivatives, from which however **windlass** deviates and also **rescind**, together with all derived from the Latin **scindere**. **Gild** and **guild**, **build**, in which **u** is not sounded, have also a short **i**:

ei is lastly heard in **climb** and **Christ**, yet not in the derivatives from **Christ**, as **christen**, **christian** &c. and not even in the compound **Christmas** (pronounced **crīsmas**).

β. Another **exception** also is formed by the syllable **ir** with a consonant after it, unless a second **r**, as in **mirror**, immediately follows it. In this syllable **i** passes over into the more obscure sound of **ō** like **ē** and borders therefore on the sound **u** before **r**. The reason lies in the final guttural letter. Here belong **sir**, **fir**, **chirp**, **gird**, **girt**, **skirt**, **mirth**, **birch**, **girl**, **firm**. Some pretend to find the sound in **bird**, **first**, **flirt**, **thirst** deeper and more obscure. Even educated Londoners moreover pronounce the **i** in the most familiar words, as **sir**, **bird**, **dirt** &c. as **sur**, **burd**, **durt** &c. Before double **r** the sound remains, even in derivatives, as **stirres** &c.; and in **squirrel** it is commonly heard. In **Sirrah** some

In words in which a principal and a subordinate accent are to be observed we denote the principal accent by **ˈ**, the subordinate by **ˊ**, the latter only if the vowel upon which the subordinate accent falls has not a mark of quantity.

denote it also by *är* or *er* or *ur*. Even in the open syllable of *sirup*, it is pronounced in common life *ü*, as in *sürup*.

y. In some foreign words *in* and *il* in the close syllables are pronounced like the Highdutch *I, ie*; *chagrín*, *chequín*, *zechín* (the latter also with the accented first syllable) *chopín* (likewise sometimes accented on the first syllable) *bombasín*, *palanquín*, *capuchín*, *alguazil*. (Others accent the first or second syllable) *brasil* or *brazíl*, also invalid (substantive, as distinguished from the adjective *inválid*, weak). It is also pronounced thus in *famille*, on the otherhand *spadille*, regularly. By some *glacís* is also referred to this rule.

b) In an open syllable the sound *I* appears, if the accented syllable is the antepenultimate or a prior one and the following one begins with a consonant: *participate*, *diminutive*, *civilize*; — *filial*, *niveous*, *opinion*, *exhibition*; — *inclinatory*, *crimínatory*, *libertinism*, *familiarize*; *línation*, *ministérial*.

Except some words in which *i* is pronounced like the diphthong *ei*, as *primary*, *bínary*, *quínary*, *írony*, *nítency*, *prívacý* (according to some with *I*) *annihilate*; also derivatives, as *mígratory*; here belong also of course compounds, as *ísingglass*, *ícicle* (which, in spite of the mute *e* must pass for three syllables) and the compounds of *mícro-*, as *mícrocosm*, *míroscope*, *mícroscópal* &c.

2) It corresponds to the diphthong (*ái*) *ei*

a) in every accented open syllable followed by a vowel; *íodine*, *bías*, *díal*, *clíent*, *díet*, *bríer*, *híerarch*, *díadem*, *varíety*, *prósodíacal*, *Ægyptíacum*, *Levíathan*, *priápsism*; — *sciéntífical*, *píoneér*, *víolátion*, *híerárchícal* &c.; therefore also in those *i* falling under the subordinate accent from verbs in *ý*: *vér síffer*, *jústíffícal*, *próphesíer* &c., also in every syllable formed by the vowel alone: *ídol*, *írís*, *írony*; except *ítaly* and *ímage* (from the root *im*: compare the Latin *imitor*).

b) likewise in the penultimate open syllable followed by an initial consonant: *bífíd*, *díver*, *crísís*, *spíder*.

α. **Exceptions** from this rule, in which a short *I* enters, are pretty numerous, as in the rest of the vowels except *u*. They regard mostly words originally Romance or Latin, without our having been able to detect the principle of adhering everywhere to the original quantity. Yet we readily observe that in most of the exceptional cases the root syllable is followed by an *i* or *e* derivative termination (perhaps also another root); the obscurer vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, *ou* &c. are far more seldom met with at the ends of words.

Thus words in *y* are found here: *lily*, *stíthy*, (compare *stíth*), *city*, *píty*, *prívy*; especially adjectives in *íd*: *nítíd*, *líquíd*, *lívid*, *rígíd*, *frígíd*, *vívíd*, *ínsípíd*, *tímíd*; Compounds as *trífíd*, *quadrífíd* &c.; nouns in *íc*: *cívíc*, *crítíc*, *empíríc*; also compounds in *fic*, as *prólífíc*, *pacífic*

&c.; verbs and adjectives in *ish*: *mínish*, *dimínish*, *finísh*, *brítish*, *dímish*, *compare díim*; on the other hand *írish*; in *il*: *sigil*, *cívil*; Nouns and verbs in *it*: *digit*, *spírit*, *limit*, *visit*, *illicit*, *elicit*, *exhibit*, *inhibit*, *prohibit*, *explicit*, *implicit*, *solicit*; Participles in *en*: *risen*, *dríven*, *ríven*, *shríven*, *thríven* (true to the Anglosaxon *i*), also *línen*; on the other hand *l = ei* in the verb *dízen*; words in *el*: *chísel*, *shrível*, *snível*, *swível*; and *er*: *líver*, *ríver*, *prímer*, *híther*, *shíver*, *wíther*, *consíder*, *de-líver*; in *et*: *cívet*, *trívet*, *prívet*, *rívet*. To which are added various other endings of words, as in *brítain*, *mínim*, and the compound *príthee*.

Terminations with obscure vowels are here far more rare, as *ar* in *vícar*; *age* in *visage*, *spinage*; *ate* in *frigate*; *and* in *brigand*, *riband*; *ald* in *ribald*; *ard* in *lizard*, *vizard*, *wizard*; in *or* and *our* in *líquor*, *vísor*, *rígour*, *vígour*; in *ot* in *bigot*, *spígot*; in *ure* in *figure*; in *ute* in *mínute* (on the contrary *minúte* adjective), *tríbut*, *attribut*, *contribut*, *distribut* and in single words as *ptísan*, the compound *lítharge*, *bíshop*, *cítrul*, *trí-bune*, *contínue*, *sínew*, *wídown*.

- β . Some foreign words retain in the penultimate the sound of the Highdutch *i*, *ie*, *becafico* (according to some with *ei*), *Czarina*, *capiui*, *serpigo* (according to some with *ei*), *vertigo* (according to some with *ei*). *China* = porcelain is pronounced *chaneé*.
- c) It is a diphthong in those accented syllables ending in a consonant in pronunciation, which are followed by an organic or unorganic mute *e*: *íce*, *íre*, *ríse*, *príme*, *príze*, *bíte*, *bribe*, *fíne*, *víle*, *díke*, *títte*, *stríde*, *knífe* &c.; so also in *íse* (with silent *s*).
- α . Except *gíve* and *líve*, in which *i* sounds *i*.
- β . A second exception is formed by foreign words, in which it is pronounced like the Highdutch *i*, *ie*; they are mostly words in *íque*, *íne*, *íce* and *íse*: *píque*, *antíque*, *oblique*; *crítique*, *uníque*; — *machíne*, *magazíne*, *maríne*, *ultra-maríne*, *transmaríne*, *mandaríne*, *routine*, *fascíne*, *festucíne*, *tabouríne*, *tambouríne*, *terríne*, *ton tíne*, *trephíne*, *haberdíne*, *colbertíne*, *gabardíne*, *chiop-píne* (Shakspeare); — *políce*, *capríce*, *chemíse*, *chevaux de fríse*, *fríze*, moreover *grís* and *verdigrís*, *fatígue* and *intrígue*, *imbecíle* and some others, wherein a varying pronunciation and spelling prevails, as in *Kash-míre* and *Cashmere* also *Kérsey-mére*.
- B) In the unaccented syllable the appearance of the *i* as a short vowel or a diphthong is to be analyzed in general in the following aspects.
 1. a) The short *i* the most decidedly among the vowels retains its accented tinge in the unaccented syllable. Every unaccented *i* is in general short, both in the close and in the open syllable, unless the syllable ending in a consonant is followed by

a mute *e*. It appears less slight in the close syllable: *invalid*, *irregular*, *historian*, *ministerial*; more slight in the open one: *divide*, *perfidy*, *daintily*, *flexibility*, although even here attraction prevails in some measure.

The *i*-sound is however dimmed like other vowels before a single *r*, an unaccented final *ir* as well as *yr*, *er*, *ar*, *or*, sounding almost exactly like *ur*, so that words like *nádír*, *sátýr*, *róbbér*, *dóllár*, *authór* and *súlphúr* have hardly any distinction in their final sounds.

If another vowel, unless it has a dental before it, follows the unaccented *i*, it often becomes hardened, especially after a short accented syllable, into the halfconsonant *y*: *ónion*, (*speak onyon*), *pinion*, *mínion*, *spániel*, *póniard*, *filial*, *miliary*, *million*, rarely after a long syllable, as in *álien*; yet even here a hardening of the *i* is approached. The same phenomenon is also offered by the accented syllable in *caviár*.

If a dental *t*, *d*, *s*, *x* = *cs*, *c*, *z*, *ch* precedes the unaccented *i* in this case, the short *i* becomes commonly a modification of the dental, which is transformed into a sibilant: *militia* pronounced *milisha*, *nátion*, *méntion*, *sátiat*e; — *söldier* pronounced *sóljer*; — *pérsian* pronounced *pérs'h'an*; — *sócial* pronounced *sósh'al*, *cóncscious* pronounced *cónsh'us*, *nóxious* pronounced *nóckshus*; — *glázier* pronounced *glásh'er*; — *fálchion* pronounced *fálchun*, *márchioness* pronounced *márshoness*; yet in many words the *i* is suffered to sound, especially as *y*, as in *asian* pronounced *ash-yan*, or even as a vowel, as in *ásiatic*, pronounced *ásiatic*. If an *s* or *x* precedes the *i*, the more noble pronunciation requires the hardening of the *i* to *y*: *christian* = *christyan*, *quéstion* = *quéstyon*, *mixtion* = *mixtyon* &c. The popular pronunciation indeed suffers the *i*-sound to be heard, but nevertheless transforms *y* into *sh*.

- 5) The *i* remains short in some derivative terminations, in which a mute *e* still follows a consonant; thus constantly in the terminations *ive*, *ive*: *áctive*, *nátive*, *defénsive*, *ópposite*, *infiníte*; and in substantives in *ise*, *ice*, as *prómise*, *tréatise* and *appréntice*, *jáundice*, *jústice* &c.; but not in *exercise*. Likewise in composition with *plíce* and *fíce*: *accómplíce*, *ártifice*, *édifice*, *órifíce*. The derivative terminations *ine* and *ile* fluctuate partially with regard to their derivation. Those supposing the Latin *i* short, remain mostly: *elephántine* (*elephantinus*), *crýstalline*, *córralline*, *sánguine* (*sanguineus*); likewise imitations, as *cáncrine*, *sácccharine*, *lacértine*; — *frágile* (*fragilis*), *fértile*, *séssile*, *físsile*; yet *i* originally long are also shortened, as in *múríne*, (*murinus*), *córvine* (*corvinus*), *vúlpine* (*vulpinus*); — *sérvile* (*servilis*), *hóstile* (*hostilis*), *júvenile* and others, whereas others remain long, (diphthongs) as *féline*, *férine*, *pórcine*, *bóvine*; — *géntile* (*gentilis*) &c. The verbal termination *ize* remains a diphthong, as in *réalíze*, *équalíze*, *etérnize*, *órganize*, *náturalíze* (wherein *ize* may be conceived as falling under the subordinate accent). *Endénize* forms an

exception, because the termination does not here correspond to the Greek *ἴσις*. The verbs in *ise* are fluctuating; *advertise*, *exorcise*, *recognise*, have the diphthong, but not those derived from substantives, as *promise*. Even in *reconcile* *i* is a diphthong.

In compounds the diphthong of the simple word is, as a rule, retained, likewise as a compensation for the long *i* in words originally Latin and Greek, as *regicide*, *acrospire* &c.; in those compounded of *shire* the *i* has however the dimmed sound of the *i*: *Yorkshire*, *Wiltshire*.

2) The *i* diphthong as *ei* without alteration of the accentual tinge:

- a) in an open syllable, followed by an accented syllable commencing with a vowel: *iámbus*, *Íonic*, *íóta*, *híatus*, *díalogism*, *díámeter*, *míásmal*, *piácular*, *viátic*, *diúrnal*, *triúmphal*, **Except** in foreign words, as *níello*, *piáster*, *siésta*, *piázza* and such like. This is also the case before accented syllables commencing with a consonant, when *i* makes a syllable by itself: *idéa*, *írascible*, *írónic*, *írénical*: *i* remains short in *imáagine*, *imáginary* (on account of *image*, see above), also in words compounded of *in*, as *inánity* (from the Latin *in-anis*, compare *vanus*), *ináugurate*, where not *i* alone constitutes the syllable.

With respect to the open syllable commencing with consonants before the accented syllable beginning with a consonant the usage fluctuates. Derivative words, whose primitives had the accent upon that syllable, usually retain the diphthong: *mígration* from *migrate* (yet *immígration*, *tránsmígration* from *immigrate* &c.) *micáceous* from *mica*; *librátion* from *librate*; *librárian* from *library*; *licéntiate*, *licéntious* from *licence*; *liquátion* from *liqueate*; *riválicity* from *rival*; *pirátical* from *pirate*; *bíbácious*, compare *imbíbe*, yet *imbíbition*; *vibrátion* from *vibrate*; *vítality* from *vital*; *vívific*, *vívificate*, *vívíparous* and others from *víve* Latin *vivus*, although on the other hand *vívacity*; *spínócity* from *spínous*, *spíne*; *cítation* from *cíte*; *gígantic* perhaps with a view to *gíant* (*gígas*). Yet *i* is also a diphthong in *nígrescent* (Lat. *nigresco*), *níhility* (Lat. *nihil*), *tríbúnal* (Lat. *tribunal*), *Síberia*, *crítérion* Greek *κριτήριον*, and, perhaps with a view to the Latin, in *dítation* Lat. *ditare*. In compound words the prefixes *bi* (Latin *bī*), *di* (Greek and Latin *dī*) *tri* (Greek and Lat. *trī*) have in this position the *i* diphthong everywhere except in *díplóma*, with its derivatives, likewise *di* (= Lat. *dī* from *dis*): *didúction*, *dívaricate*, as also under the subordinate accent. In other compounds original length remains as a diphthong; thus in those compounded with *iso*, Greek *ἴσος*, *pri-m* —, *primo* (Lat. *primus*), with *chi-r* —, *chi-ro* (Greek *χρῆς*), *cli-no* (Greek from *κλίνοι*), *micro* (Greek and Lat. *micro*) and many such, to which also words like *nílómeter*, *rhinóceros*, *rhizóphorous* &c. belong.

- b) The final *i* is a diphthong in Latin terminations of every kind:

amphiscii, anthropóphagí, antíscii, antæcí, áscí, literátí, triúmvirí; lapis lázuli; certioráři; álibí: but not in Italian words, as bandittí, bróccolì, vermicéllí; however, in the foreign word rábbí, but which we often hear pronounced rábbí.

The Compounds of **I** with other vowels to represent sounds are **ie** and **ieu** (**iew**); in which, however, only the former has taken root in the language.

A) ie in the accented syllable serves

1. a) to denote the long **I** of the Highdutch, and therefore often answers to the English **ea** and **ee**: as in mien, piece, priest, frieze, brief, bier, fiend, field, thief, shield, shriek, siege, as in cáp-a-píe. Where the syllable ends in **r** the sound heard in the Lowdutch hier, English here, appears; tier = row, pierce, fierce, grénadiér, góndoliér, árque-busiér.

By way of exception, the first syllable in giereagle, gierfalcon, which is also spelt gerfalcon, is pronounced like ger. Compare the Old-English gerfauk, gerfawcon, medieval Latin: gyrofalco. Some also disregard the **i** in fierce and tierce.

- b) It answers to the diphthong **î**, **ei**, in monosyllabic roots: lie, píe, fie, vie, tie, díe, híe and their monosyllabic forms: díes, tíed, as in adjectives: píed = variegated; píedness &c.; likewise in the forms of nouns and verbs in **ý**: flíes from the substantive flý; tríes from the verb trý, but not in the second person present tríest, where **e** sounds by itself = trí-est.

These sound also remains in compounds, even in the unaccented syllable: mágpíe.

- 2) It has a short sound

- a) like **í** in síeve = sív.
- b) like **ê** in fríend = frénd.

- B) In an unaccented syllable **ie**, with the exception above stated, answers to the **i** unaccented: míschíef, míschíevous and very frequently in the monosyllabic forms of nouns and verb in **ý**: cíties, dígnities, cóuntries; cárríes, píties, envíed, pí-tíed, áble-bodied.

Ieu, **iew** the latter in one word only, belong to French forms. Both in the accented and the unaccented syllable they answer to the sound of the diphthong **û** = **iu**, so that **i** almost hardens into a consonant (= **ju**): adíeu, líeu, víeu; — camáíeu, púrliu.

By way of exception **ieu** in an unaccented syllable is pronounced like **ê** with a **v** (instead of **u**) in lieutenant = lèvténant compare Old-English levetennante; likewise like **ê** in messieurs = méseyérz. We also hear lèfténant, lèfténant and even lúténant as well as méschürz pronounced.

Y, in Old-English, often standing instead of **i** at the beginning of a word, now in the middle of a word in words mostly Greek, rarely persisting as the final sound of the root in inflection or composition, but commonly transmuted into **i**, shares the phonetic relations of **i**.

A) in the accented syllable it answers to:

1) the short *ɪ*

a) in the close syllable: nymph, lymph, lynx, pym, sylph, system, gypsy, hyssop, mysticism.

By way of exception *y* before a simple *r* passes over into the dimmed sound, like in *Myrmidon*, *myrtle*, also in *myrrh*, although before two *r*'s belonging to different syllables the genuine *ɪ*-sound remains: *Pýrrho*.

b) in an open antepenultimate or prior syllable before an initial consonant of the following: pyramid, hypocrite, tyranny; — myriad, lybian, — hypochondriast, typographical (on the other hand typography from type).

By way of exception the original diphthong *ei* is heard under the subordinate accent in *hymenean*, *hymeneal* from *hymen*. In compounds this is natural, as well as in those beginning with *hypo* and *hyper*, hypercritical, hypostatical, as well as in those compounded of *hydro*, *cyclo* &c., *hydrophobia*, *cyclopædia* &c., *chylifaction* from *chyle* &c.

2) On the other hand it is a diphthong with the sound (ai) *ei*:

a) in every accented open syllable followed by a vowel: *flýing*, *crýing*, *drýad*, *mýopy*, *hýacanth*, *hýades*, *hýaloid*; *hýacanthine*; as also in the syllables belonging to the stem and ending in *y*: *mý*, *thý*, *bý*. *flý*, *drý*, *slý*, *ský*, *crý*, *applý*, *espý*, *dený*, *descrý*, *defý*.

By way of exception *mý* and *bý*, when they lean proclitically on a subsequent noun, are pronounced like *mē*, *bē*, and *thý* undergoes the same in popular Speech. In composition, moreover, the absence of accent does not destroy the *sanedei* of the stem as in *óutcrý*, *kilndrý*.

b) in the open penultimate followed by an initial consonant: *cýpress*, *týrant*.

Exceptions, in which instead of *ei* the sound of *ɪ* enters, are even here to be found in words ending in *ic*, *il*, *ish* &c.; in *ic*: *lýric*, *phýsic*, *týpic*, *chýmic*; in *il*: *Sýbil*; in *ist*: *chýmist*; *inge*: *sýringe*. In *panegýric*, *panegýrist*, *ýr* sounds like *ēr*.

c) in the syllable ending with a consonant followed by an organic or inorganic mute *e*: *lýre*, *rhýme*, *pýre*, *scýthe*, *gýve*, *týpe*, *thýme*, *chýle*, *chýme*.

B) In the unaccented syllable *y* has

1) in general in the close and the open syllable the same sound as the unaccented *ɪ*: *sýnónýmý*, *Égypt*, *phýsician*, *análysis*, *ýcléped*, *dýnámical*. The sound is dimmed in the final syllable *ýr*, like *ír*: *sátýr*, *mártýr*, *mártýrdom*.

2) It is a diphthong however (*ei*):

a) in the open syllable before the accented syllable beginning with a vowel: *hýena*, *mýology*, *hýemal* (by some pronounced *hýemal*). With regard to the open syllable, beginning with a consonant, before the accented syllable beginning with a consonant,

the maintenance of the diphthong of the stem is true, as it is of i: *lŷceum*, *tŷrānnic*, *tŷrānnical*, *chŷlāceous*, *hŷdā-tides* (plural, from the sing: *hŷdatis*), *gŷration* (from *gŷre*) in *tŷpōgraphy* (from *tŷpe*) and other compounds. So also in those compounded with *hŷpo* and *hŷper*, as *hŷpōstasis*, *hŷpōtenuse* &c., *hŷpérbole* &c. and those with *hŷdro-*, *hŷdr-* and *hŷgro*: *hŷdrōpic*, *hŷdrāulic* &c., *hŷgrólogy* &c, mostly technical expressions.

- b) in some verbal terminations, as well as in their inflectional forms: *óccupŷ*, *próphesŷ*, *óccupŷing*. The verbal endings *fŷ* and *plŷ* are properly stems (-ficare, -plicare) *justifŷ*, *múltiplŷ* &c. and are in the same predicament as other compounds: see above.

Of combinations of the vowel *y* *ye* alone exists: it is a diphthong in *ei*: *bŷe*, *rŷe*.

E has partly the power of *e*, partly of *i*.

A) In the accented syllable it has

1) the sound of the short *è*

- a) in the close syllable: *men*, *neb*, *fetch*, *left*, *ell*, *help*, *chess*, *pence*, *defence*, *présent*, *expensive*.

- α) an exception is here again formed by the syllable closed by *r* (even with another consonant following), in which the guttural dims the *e*, so that it appears to have the power of *è*, although the pronunciation of the vulgar Londoner, who says *mürcy* instead of *mércy*, is false: *hër*, *detër*, *fërn*, *hërd*, *fërvîd*.

Even here the influence of the guttural is softened, when it is followed by a second (dental) *r*: *intërrogate*; yet not when *rr* concludes the stem *ërr*.

- ρ) In some syllables ending in *r*, *e* assumes the *a*-sound (or = *ar*): *clerk*, *sérgeant*; formerly in many others, as *mérchant* compare Old-Engl. *marchandye*; *Bérkeley* compare Old-Engl. *Barcassyre* *Dérby* and others, and thus still, provincially, for example in *Leicestershire*: *marcy*, *desarve* &c. and with the vulgar Londoner *sárvant* beside *súrvant*. So in other provinces *e* becomes *a* before other consonants also; for example, in *Warwickshire*: *laft*, *fatch*, *batty* = *left*, *fetch*, *betty*.

- ∴) The short *i*-sound but rarely appears, as in *England*, *énglish* cf. *Ingland* also sec. XVI b. Halliwell I. p. 469 II., *prétty*, *chémistry* (pronounced *kímistry*) and *clef* (where some say *cléf*); yes is also often pronounced *yis*: compare Old-Engl. *gis* (GOWER) *yis* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN); *retch* sounds just like *reach*.

- b) in an open syllable, when the succeeding one begins with a consonant and that accented syllable is the antepenult or prior one; yet no double vowel, the former of which is *i* or *e*, must follow the consonant which follows the accented syllable: *nébula*, *légacy*, *léchery*, *bétony*, *béverage*, *dévilish*, *général*, *générous*, *génésis*, *several*, *hésitate*, *héresy*; — *cémetery*, *nécessary*; — *cémentâtion*, *génération*.

This also appears where the prefixes *de* and *r* have the principal or subordinate accent: *dérogate*, *délegate*, *déliquate*, *référence*, *rélevant*; *déclaration*, *détonation*.

The chief exceptions are words derived from stems with *e*, in which *e* sounds like *i*, that is to say *I*, as: *légâize*, *bêhemoth*, *cenatory*, *plenary*, *schematism*, *schematist* (on account of *οχημα*) and others; and some among those compounded of *de* and *re*, when there syllables fall under the subordinate accent, where the *ë*-sound else appears: *décompôse*, *décompôund* *c. der.*, *dehortâtion*, *déterrâtion*, *détéstâtion*; with *re* this case appears, where it has the more pregnant sense of *again*: *rêpossêss*, *rêprodûce*, *resâlûte* &c. Exceptions such as *vêhement*, *vêhicle* Lat. *vêhemens*, *vêhiculum* perhaps have the *i* sound because *h* does not completely remove the hiatus, compare above *annihilate* (from Lat. *nihil*). In composition with *preter* *e* under the subordinate accent remains a long *I*: *prêtermît*, yet short under the principal accent in *prêterit*; likewise in derivation, as *prêterition*. *Prê* also, Lat. *prae*, remains *I* under the main accent in *prêcept*, and commonly also under the subordinate accent in *prêsuppôse*, *prêsurmise*, *prêconceive*, *prêconception* and others. Exceptions of another sort are *bêdlery* (*beadlery*) and many more.

2) the sound of the long *I*, *ie*

- a) in the **accented open syllable** followed by a vowel: *dêism*, *dêist*, *dêity*, *rêal*, *rêalîze*, *theatre*, *lêo*, *lêonine*, *thêory*, *dêodand*; also in *re* under the subordinate accent: *rêadôrn*, *rêabsôrb*; and in the accented syllable formed by a single vowel: *êon*, *êven*, *êvil*, *êvening*, *êdict*, *êquable*, *êqualize*, *êquinox* &c.; *êlasticity*, *êructâtion*, *êrepâtion*; as well as in monosyllabic words ending in *e*: *bê*, *hê*, *mê*, *wê*, *thê*.

By way of exception the *e* of this sort is shortened, especially in the antepenultimate accented syllables and maintains the *ë*-sound; as *êmulate*, *êmanate*, *êgotize*, *êgotist* and even *êgoist*, as well as under the subordinate accent: *êrubêscant*; also in the penultimate: *êver*, *êpode*, *êphod*.

Among the abovenamed monosyllabic words the proclitic article sounds *ie* only when spoken emphatically; else, before vowels *thî*; before consonants *thê*, as *glib* shortness: and generally, these words, proclitically or enclitically, often lose some portion of their quantity.

- b) in the **open penultimate** followed by an initial consonant: *lêgist*, *Pêter*, *fêver*, *fêline*, *cedar*.

Exceptions again are here formed by many words in which *ë* appears, especially before a derivative syllable, or terminations containing *i* or *e*; in *y*: *lêvy*, *bêvy*, *replêvy*, *vêry*, *têchy*; in *id*: *fêtid*, *têpid*, *intrepid*, *gelid*; in *ic*: *polêmic*, *energetic*, *spheric*, *genêric* and others; in *ish*: *rêlish*, *Rhênish*, *replênish*, *splênish*, *pêrish*, *blêmish*, *Flêmisch*; in *il*, *ile*, (*yl*): *pêril*, *bêryl*, *devil*, *stêrile*, *dê-*

bile; in *in*: résin; in *û*: mérit, inhérit, crédit, décrépit, débit; in *ice*: crévice, Vénice; in *en*: léven (otherwise læven), elèven, séven, hēben; in *el*: lèvel, rebel, rêvel, bèvel, dishèvel, shēkel; in *er*: nèther, nèver, léper, alléger (from allège), séver, assever, cléver, togèther, whèther; in *et*: gēnet, tēnet; in *ent*: clement, présent; also anomalous words, as shériff, Zéphyr, rélict, prémiss; — lèvee, prébend, désert, trèble.

Words ending in obscure vowels are here also rarer; in *al*: medal, métal, pétal; in *age*: présage; in *ace*: menace, preface; in *ate*: prelate, légate, sénate; in *ant*: pedant, tenant, lieutenant; in *on*: mélon, lémon, felon, héron; in *or*: ténor, and a few other, as séraph, hérald; — Hérod, méthod, vènom, envèlop, sécond, record; — chérub, déluge, réfuge, prélude, réfuse, ténure, sphèrule, gerund; — nèphew, mémoire.

- c) in the accented syllable ending in a consonant, and followed by an organic or unorganic mute e: ève, glebe, thème, thèse, Crète, hère, sévère.

Except a few words in *r*, in which *e* receives the sound of the English *ā* = *ē*, much as in the Highdutch Ehre (dimmed by the guttural *r*): ere, where, there compare Old-Engl. *ar* (are), ware, pare (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER). Thus too the Englishman pronounces the French *commère*. In *wère* *e* is shortened.

- d) in the accented syllable (under the subordinate accent also), when followed by a double vowel sound, the former of which is *i* or *e*: espèces, apèrient, aurélia, comédian, abbréviate, allégiance, période, sénior, région, génius, prévius, egrègius, prémiu, supersèdeas, mezèreon, mèteor; under the subordinate accent: gèniàlity, dèviàtion, mèdiàtion, mèdiòcrity, périòdic, mèteoròlogy.

Exceptions are rare, as espécial, discrètion, précious.

- B. In the unaccented syllable, *e*, where not silent, (see the silence of the vowels) is always shortened into the power of *i*. This tinge comes out more distinctly in the open syllable before the accent, likewise at the end of the word, if *e* is audible at all, and in these positions is distinguished by a lengthening, which however is insignificant, because the attraction is weakened: *depàrt*, *sedàte*, *repòse*, *elàborate*, *ecóonomy*, *evént*, and at the end of latinized Greek words: Phèbe, Penélope, építome, récipe, apócopé, símile, pòsse, also in púisne (sometimes spelt púny). It is strictly long in the latinized Greek termination *ès*: ambàgès, antipodès. The *i*-sound comes out less decidedly in an originally close syllable: *réstlessness*, *póet*, *cóvet*, *hélmet*, *quàrrel*, *bàrren*, *linen*; more distinctly in the termination *es* after a syllant: *bóxes*, *fáces*, *áshes*, *he debáses*.

In the syllable *er* it is equal to the dimmed *ir*, *ur*: *pertúrb*, *persuade*, *númbér*, *partáker*, even in *émperor* (compare Old-Engl. *pepir* = pepper, *aftur*, *hongur*, *longur*), softened by the subsequent consonant: *cómmerce*. It is to be observed that

the final *bre, tre, cre, gre* are exactly equal to the unaccented *ber, ter, cer, ger*, as they were often spelt in the older English and still sometimes are; and that final sounds such as *payer, player, slayer* are hardly to be distinguished from those in *care, fair*.

Lastly we must also remark the influence of the nasal *n* (in *ent, ence*) on the obscurer tinge of the unaccented *e* (approaching the English *u*): *prudent, agent, amendment, ornament, decence, excellence*.

Of combinations of *e* with other vowels, to represent vowel (and diphthongal) sounds, *ee, ei, ey, ea, eau, eo, eu* and *ew* are to be cited.

ee is chiefly found

- A) in the accented syllable, and serves there almost solely to represent the long *i*, *ie*, equal to the English *ē*: *needle, bleed, free, feeling, carēen, carēer, debtēe, bargainēe*.

In *Beelzebub* both *e*'s are to be pronounced; it sounds *Bēelzebub* or *Bēelzebub*. In *e'er* instead of *ēver* and *ne'er* instead of *nēver* *e'er* is pronounced like *ere* in *there*.

By way of exception *ee* appears shortened into *i* in *been* (Old-Engl. *ben*) and in common life in *threepenny, threepence* (= *thripenny, -ence*); we also pronounce *breeches* (from *sing. breech*) like *britches*: compare Old-Engl. *brych* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER).

- B) In the unaccented syllable *ee* is shortened like the unaccented *e* of the power of *e*: *cóffee, committee, lévee* (according to some *levée*); in *júbiles* we use to leave to *ee* the long sound.

ei and *ey*, whereof the former belongs chiefly, though not exclusively, to the end of stems and to some derivative terminations, are equivalent in their phonetic relations, and are divided into the *e-*, the *i-* and *ei-* sounds.

- A) In the accented syllable *ei* has

1) commonly the sound of the long *ē* or the English *ā* and *ai*: *eight, neigh, néighbour, vein, deign, obéissance*. Before *r* it receives the dimmed sound as in *there*: *their, theirs, heir, héiress*.

2) sometimes that of the long *i*, *ie*, Engl. *ā*: *cāil, cāiling, sēize, sēizin, sēine, sēignior, re-per-de-con-cēive, decēit, concēit, recēipt, invēigle, lēizure*, and in propernames as *Leigh, Leith, Kēil, Kēith, Kēighley, Kēightley &c.* In *Plēiads* the pronunciation divides *plē-yads*.

3) still more unusual is the diphthong sound *ei*, like the English *ī* in *height* (from *hīgh*), *sleight, heigh-ho!* In *either* and *neither* too some think to hear the diphthong *ei*.

By way of exception we pronounce *ei* as a short *ē*, English *e* in *heifer* and in *nonparēil*.

- B) In the unaccented syllable it answers to the short *i*: *fóreign, sóvereign, fórfeit, súrfeit, cóunterfeit*.

ey has

- A) in the accented syllable

- 1) usually the sound of the long ē: *trey, grey, they, hey!* obéy, convéy, Héytsbury; before *r* with a dimmed vowel, as in there: *eyre, ēyry*, on the other hand, also spelt *érie*, is pronounced with *i*.
- 2) as a long *i* in *kēy, lēy* (for which also *lēa* stands).
- 3) as *ei* diphthong in *eye, eyliad* (pronounced *il-yad*) and *eyas*.
- B) In the unaccented syllable *ey* answers to the short *ĭ, ĭ: álley, bárley, chimney, cáusey, Túrkey, Sidney*.

ea makes sometimes the *e*-sound, sometimes the *i*-sound predominant. Linguistic usage does not divide shortness and length by fixed etymological or orthoepical principles.

A) In the accented syllable *ea* represents

- 1) frequently the sound of the short ē (English *e*):

a) mostly in a close syllable, and especially when *ea* is followed in position by more than one consonant: *bréast, abreast, héalth, stealth, wéalth, bréadth, réalm*; in verbal forms: *dréamt, léant, méant, déalt, léapt* (otherwise spelt *leaped*) and in *cléanse*; in the compounds *cléanly* *c. deriv.*; in the compound *bréakfast* also *ea* has been shortened; the same takes place in *tréadle* from *tréad*. The derivatives of *sēam* remain unshortened, although *sēmpster* is spelt along with *sēamster*.

If in this case *r* stands immediately after *ea* ē is dimmed like *ē* before *r*: *ēarn, lēarn, yēarn, ēarnest, ēarl, pēarl, ēarly, hēard, ēarth, dēarth, hēarse, rehēarse, sēarch, resēarch*.

Except *bēard*, with *i* *ea* in position before *r* rarely passes into the sound *a* (ā), which fluctuates between length and shortness in *heārken, heārt* and *heārth* (by some pronounced *hārth*).

But even in some words ending in a simple consonant, with their inflectional forms and derivatives and in compounds *ēa* is short ē. They mostly end in *d, t* and *th*, and one in *f*: *lēad, rēad* (from *rēad*), *rēady, brēad, dēad, drēad, trēad, thrēad, stēad, sprēad, hēad; thrēat, swēat; dēath, brēath; dēaf*; consequently also in *lēaden, rēady, dēaden, thrēaden, thrēaten; dēafen, drēader*; in *ahēad, behēad, instēad, bestēad, alrēady, stēadfast &c.* but not in *brēathe &c.*

b. in the open syllable we find *ēa* short in *hēavy; lēaven, hēaven; lēather, fēather, wēather, trēachery; pēasant, phēasant, plēasant; mēadow; wēapon; endēavour; zēalot; mēasure, plēasure, trēasure*.

- 2) Moreover *ea* represents a long vowel both in the open and the close syllable, and that the long *i* (Engl. *ē*): *lēa, pēa, plēa, flēa, sēa, ēach, pēak, lēague, shēath, pēace, bēast, ap-pēar, hēar, bēaver, crēature &c.*

By way of exception *ea* has in a few words the sound of *ē* (Engl. *ā*): *greāt, brēak, steāk*; before *r* it sounds in this case like *e* in there: *peār, beār, teār* (= to rend), *sweār*. Dialectically the sound *ē* is often used for *ea*; thus in Warwickshire *sēa* sounds like *say*, *mēat* like *mait*.

B) In the **unaccented syllable** *ea*, as representing a single vowel sound, is rare. It is then equivalent to the unaccented *e* or *y* with the power of *i*: *guínea* pronounced *ghínny*; *Anglesea* sounds like *Anglesey*, which is also written; longer in *colleague*. *Ea* is found elsewhere as an original double syllable, in which, however *e* is often hardened into *y* consonant, and then enters into combination with the consonant, or ensures the dental sound to a guttural: *págeant*, *véngéance*, *océan* (pronounced *osh'än*). In compounds the *ë*-sound remains: *bédstěad*.

eau sounds

A) in the **accented syllable** like along *ó*: *beau*, *bureáu*; yet like *û* (*iú*) in *beáuty*.

B) in the **unaccented syllable** it loses little of its quantity as *ó*: *flámbeau*, *portmánteau*.

eo, like the last combination, seldom employed to represent a sound, is

A) in the **accented syllable**:

- 1) to be pronounced like a long *ī* in *pěople*, *Thēobald*.
- 2) like a long *ō* in: *yeōman*, *yeōmanry*, where some pronounce it like *ē*, others like *ū*: compare Old-Engl. *zeman*, *yeman*. In *George* *e* only serves to denote the softening of the original guttural; else *eo* forms two vowel sounds as in *geótic*.
- 3) *eo* is pronounced like *iú* in *feód*, with its derivatives, which is also spelt *feud*. *Galleón* sounds according to some *galoon*, usually *gál-lě-on*.
- 4) it is pronounced like a short *ō* in *fěoff* and its derivatives *fěotfer*, *fěoffment* &c., *lěopard*, *jěorpardy* and *jěofail* (= *jéf-fail*).

B) It does not occur in an **unaccented syllable**; where *eon* seems to be the final sound, *e* serves to indicate the softening of an original guttural: *trúncheon*, *scútcheon*, *widgeon*, *dúngeon*, *hábergeon*.

eu and *ew* are essentially equivalent to each other.

eu is

A) in the **accented syllable**, equivalent to *û* (*iú*): *Eúrope*, *feúd*, *deúce*; the *i*-sound weak in itself, as it passes over into the *y*-sound, becomes unobservable after *r* (*rh*): *rheúmatism*.

B) In the **unaccented syllable** *-eur* is pronounced like *-yür* in *grán-deur*; by some like *jur*.

ew sounds

A) in the **accented syllable** like *û* (*iú*): *ewry*, *ewer*, *new*, *few*, *dew*, *Tewksbury*; also with a following mute *e*: *éwe*. The *i*-sound is here also unobservable after *r*: *brew*, *drew*, *crew*, *shrewd*; almost so after *l*: *lewd*, *Lewis*; as well as after an initial *j*: *Jew*, *jewel*.

By way of exception the long *ó* is denoted by *ew*: *sew*, *shew*, *strew* now commonly spelt with *ow*. *Sewer* = a drain is pronounced like *sóor* or *sóer*, and even *shór*.

B) In the unaccented syllable the sound *ü* loses something of its quantity: *nép^hew*, *cú^rfew*; after *r*, *i* here totally vanishes: *hé^brew*, yet not with *l*: *cú^rlew*.

A fluctuates in its phonetic relations and its quantity in many ways, not merely under the influence of the open or close syllable, but also of the final consonant. It denotes the sound of *a* and *e*, receives a sound lying between *a* and *e*, even that of *o*, and even ranges sometimes in the unaccented syllable into *i*.

A) In the accented syllable a has

1) the short sound, coming near to the Highdutch *ä*, if we bring this a shade nearer to *a*.

a) in general in the close accented syllable: *äm*, *ädd*, *mäp*, *päck*, *fäct*, *scrätch*, *äspect*, *sädness*, *däffodil*. Syllables in which a consonant follows *n*, *f* and *s* have a feeble inclination to lengthen it, as in *plänt*, *commänd*, *cräft*, *gräss*, *gräsp* &c., in which formerly the vowel sound was broadened, which is no longer done.

Exceptions are here dependent on initial and final consonants

a) The short vowel answers to the short *ä*, English *ó* or shortened English *aw*, when preceded by *u* or *w*, and not followed by a simple *r* or *l*: *quab*, *quash*, *quántum*, *quántity*, *quándary*, *squab*, *squash*, *squat*, *squad*, *wan*, *wand*, *wámble*, *wash*, *was*, *wánton*, *swan*; before *rr* and *ll* in *quárrrel*, *quárry*, *wárrey*, *wárrior*, *wállow*, *wállop*, *wállét*; also before *dr*, which here makes position in an originally open syllable: *quádrat*, *squádrón*, *quádrature*. Of those beginning with *wh* *what* and *whap* (also spelt *whop*) belong here.

Quäf and *quäg* c. der., *wäft*, *wäggon*, *wäg* remain true to the rule.

Of other words *chap*, pl. *chaps*, and the verb to *chap* (also pronounced *chäp*) follow the exception, in contradistinction to the other *chäp* (= *chēapener* and *chäpman*), *yacht* (pronounced *yōt*) and *scállop* (pronounced *scōllop*); in common life also *slábber*; according to some also *jálap* instead of *jäláp*.

B) Under the influence of a following r and l this a (ä) becomes long:

1. where *qu*, *w*, *wh* precede the *a*, which is followed by an *r* or *r* together with another consonant: *quárt*, *quárter*, *wâr*, *wárd*, *wárt*, *whârf*.

2. In stems ending in *ll*, with their derivatives and compounds, even where these lose an *l*: *áll*, *báll*, *fáll*, *wáll*, *instáll*, *appâl*, *withâl*; — *cálling*, *appâlament*; — *âlsó*, *âlways*, *wâlrus* and in the foreign word *Bengâl*.

Where a simple stem is not found in English the word in *ll* follows the rule: *tállow*, *pállét*, *ballast* &c., *gallic* and many more.

3. where *l* stands in a syllable long by position before the dentals *d* and *t*: *âlder*, *âlderman*, *Alderney*, *bâld*, *bâl-*

dric, bälderdash, fäldage, fäldstool, scäld, chäl-dron, cältron, Kirkäldy; — ältar, älter, Alton, pältar pälttry, Bältic, Bältimore, fälter, wältron, wältz, hält, hältter, exält, basält; — sält and mält on the contrary are often pronounced with a short ä. Foreign words, such as baldachin, basalt &c. retain regularly the short ä.

The sound of the long ä, is rare in another position, as with *s* in hälse (to embrace) pälsy, pälsgrave, bälсам, fälse, fälchion, and on account of the collision with *s* in pronunciation, also in Sälisbury pronounced sälzbery; more rare with a labial letter, as in Wälpole, Tälbot, Albany, according to some also in pälfrey and hälberd, where, however, ä is preferred. Wälnut has likewise a long ä.

4. Lastly a long ä also prevails where *l* is silent before a guttural, *c* or *k*: bälk, wälk, tälk, stälk, chälk, cälk, mälkin (otherwise spelt mawkin, maukin), fälcon; so also before *s* in hälse (otherwise spelt hawse) and hälser.
- γ) Ä has the sound of the long Highdutch ä in a close syllable:
 1. in words in *th*: läth, bähth, päth. Wrath is shortened by some; scath, on the other hand mostly pronounced with a short ä.
 2. in words in which *l* is silent before *m*, *f* and *v*: älmäs, älmöner, älmönd, pälmer, bälм, cälм, mälмsey, hälf, cälф, sälve, hälve, cälves. In hälm and shälм (otherwise spelt shawm) it is pronounced like a long ä: in almanac it is shortened according to the rule; the compounds hälfpenny, hälfpence sound like häppenny &c. with a long ä, according to some häppenny &c.
- δ) In the accented syllables ending in *r* or *r* together with another consonant following, and generally in position before other consonants (except in the cases specified under α and β 1.) *a* is lengthened and broadened by the guttural, although many deem syllables of this sort short: bär, stär, cär, ärm, ärt, regärd, cärp, märble, märches, särcasm, chärcoal, bärbarism. Where *r* is doubled in derivatives this vowel sound remains: stärry, chärry, tärry; so also in pärricide; but in general the rule otherwise general comes into operation with *rr*: ärröw, märry, tärry, pärröt, särracine. — In chär and in scärce *a* is pronounced like a long ä.
- ε) Ä receives the sound of the long ä (Engl. ä) in position before *n* and dental *g*: mänge, stränge, mängy, dänger, mänger (but not in ängelic with an advancing accent); so too in words in *aste* with their derivatives, where the influence of the mute *e* takes effect after the double consonant: päste, chäste, häste; pästry, pästy, hästy, chästen, hästen (in the two last with the silent *t*) but not in chästity, chästize. In some words the ä-sound appears before *mb*: chämber, chämberlain, cämbric, Cämbridge; ämbssace: before *nc* in äncient; likewise before *ss* in bäss.

- b) The short *ă* also stands in the open antepenultimate or prior syllable, if the following one begins with a consonant, not, however, followed by two vowels the former whereof is *i* or *ë*: lateral, radical, băzanite, family, fatuous; gatherable, comparative, lapidary; laterally; lapidarian, lateritious, cameralistic. This also appears where *a* constitutes originally a syllable by itself: amorous, amicable, animal, apennine, aperture, adeling, anagram.

The exceptions are mostly words derived from English stems with long *ă*, such as: capable, capableness, ableness, placable, sanable, savoury, stätary, bäbery &c.

2. A has the sound of the long *ö*:

- a) in the accented open syllable followed by one vowel: laical, läity, cäolin, pharisäical, Archeläus; the case is rare, where *a*, by itself constituting a syllable, represents a long *ö* under the principal or subordinate accent: äer, äorist, äcorn, ämen; in derivatives from long syllables, as äpish, knävishness, äbly; very unusual in the antepenultimate and farther back, as in äcrasy, äbecedärian.
- b) In the open penultimate followed by an initial consonant: läbour, lädy, nävy, pätron, bäsis, väry, creätor, scäbrous, — mëditäive.

- c) Here again is found a considerable string of exceptions, where a short *ă* again occurs, mostly before derivative syllables with *i* or *e*: before terminations in *id*: ärid, ävid, äcid, räpid, räbid, välid, invälid, väpid, plăcid, täbid, cälid; in *ic*: mäic, pänic, barbäric, fäbric, träic; in *ish*: lävish, rävish, pärish, bänish, fämish, vänish, spänish; in *il*, *ile*: cävil, ägile, fäcile, frägile; in *it*, *ite*: häbit, inhäbit, gränite; in *in*, *ine*: mätin, lätin, rävin, bävin, säpin, sävin or säbine, sätin, spävin, cäbin; imägive, exämine, räpine, fämine; in *ice*, *ise*: ämice, mälice, mätrice, ämise; in *en*: räven in contradistinction to räven (a bird); in *el*: enämel, rävel, pänel, trävel, jävel, chäpel, cämel, grävel; in *et*, *ette*: plänet, välet, täblet, cläret; pälette; in *ern*: tävern, cävern; in *ent*: tälent, pätent; and singular cases, as zäny, tärif, tänist, cälends, läther, ädept, träverse, träject &c.

Words in *age* have obscurer vowels: ädage, mänage, mismänage, dispärage, rävenge, dämage, sävenge; in *at*, *ate*: cärat; ägate, pälate; in *ass*, *ace*: pälace; mätrass, hä rass; in *ant* and *ance*: pägeant; pä lance, vä lance; in *ard*: häzard, hägärd; in *on*: bäron, flägon, tälon, cänon; in *om*: ätom, fäthom; in *or*, *our*: mänor, välor, clämour; in *ue*: välu, stätue and a few others, as läzar, dämask, plätane, sälad, scärab, änarch; shäadow; cärol, fägot, hävock; älum, lärum or alärum, gämut, stätue, stätute, also shämois. Sätire and sätyr are likewise mostly shortened; but Sätan is mostly pronounced with a long *ä*.

β. **A** answers to the short *ē* in any, many; compare Old-Engl. eny (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); likewise in Thames (with mute *e*) pronounced temz Old-Engl. Temese.

∴ The sound of the long *ā* (*ā*) is given to wāter, Wāterford and Rāleigh.

c) in the syllable ending with a consonant, and followed by an organic or unorganic mute *e*: āpe, māce, lāne, rāge, dāte, tāme, collāte. If *r* precedes the mute *e*, the guttural tinges the *ā*, so that it approaches nearer to the Highdutch *ä*: märe, shäre, bäre, cäre.

Except häve, bāde, in which *a* is *ä* short.

In āte (also spelt eat) it sounds like *ē* (*ēt*).

In āre, from to be, *a* sounds like a german *ä*.

d) in the accented syllable, if followed by a double vowel, the former whereof is *i* or *e*: āpiary, āsian, nāiad (pronounced nāyad), bacchanālian, barbārian, acācia, emāciate, reputātion, occāsion, vārious, spācious, sagācious, rādus, epithalāmium, sānies, sāpience, pātient; gālea, subterrāneous, illāqueate, nectāreous, āqueous &c.

Here, however, we find many exceptions; *a* is shortened into *ä*, especially before *io*, where no dental precedes: compānion, battālion, tātterdemālion, clārion, chāriot, gāliot; but also else: glādiate, retāliate, vāliant, spāniel, gāseous, āgio &c.; even gymnāsium.

Also occasionally in further derivation even an *a* is shortened in such a case, as in nātionāl, nātionālizē (from nātion), rātionāl, rātionālist (from rātio).

B) In the unaccented syllable the vowel *a* becomes obscured, through the more glib utterance, into a sound of the power of *o*, approaching the English *ü* spoken glibly; thus in an open syllable before initial consonants: alōne, abāck, ādamant, miracle; as we as where it is the final sound: Africa, ālpha, drāma; and this is the predicament of the proclitic article *a* in *a* book; less so in a close syllable, in which the sound is nearer that of *ä*: accēp plūral, cāpital, ādamant, ālmanac; in compounds, as Hīghlands, Hōlland. This sound is more obscure before a final dōllar, liar, pōlar, partāke, mūstard, oūtward.

A remains nearer the long *ē* in quantity and colour before vowels: Aōnian, āorta, āerial, chāotic, ārchāism; likewise in the final *ade* and *ate* (this latter, however, only in the verbal termination): cōmrāde, ōperāte; in words like rēnegāde, ōperāte *e* *a* falls even under the subordinate accent.

In the terminations *age* and *ate* (as a termination of nouns) the *ē*-sound inclines towards the clearer *i*: pēerage, villāge, pātronage, bāronage; obstinate, fōrtunate, illiterate; also in the terminations *ace* and *ase*: pālāce (compare Old-Engl. paleis), sōlāce, pūrchase.

The sound of the short *ā* (Engl. *ö*) is also maintained in the unaccented syllable of all words beginning with *quadr-*, as *quadratic* &c.

The long *ā* (ā) remains in the prefix *āl*: *ālthóugh*, *ālréady*, *ālmighty*; and is heard in *jáckál*, of course also in *cátcáll*, *as* a compound.

As compounds of *a* with vowels to represent simple sounds, *aa*, *ae*, *ai*, *ay*, *ao*, *au* and *aw* occur, of which *aa* and *ao* have hardly found admission.

Aa seldom occurs as one syllable, although the two syllables easily coalesce into one.

A) In the accented syllable *aa* appears

- 1) with the sound *ā*, almost the same as in *Áaron*, in which this sound only arises through the confluence of *ā ā*; in *Bāal*, *Gāal*, *Lāadan* and others these syllables are more decidedly separated.
- 2) On the other hand *aa* occurs in modern foreign names with the sound of the long *ā* (ā), for example, in *Áar*, *bazāar*, *Sāarbruck*, *Sāal*, *Sāale*; similarly, *ma'am* (= *mādām*) is popularly contracted into one sound. The English verb *baa* is perhaps the only English word with *ā*.
- 3) *aa* sounds like *ā* long (ā) in *Áalborg*.

B) In the unaccented syllable the two *a*'s blend in such words as *Ísaac*, *Bálsam*, *Cánaan* into one *a*, which is somewhat shortened in quantity.

Ae appears in foreign words mostly in the form *æ*, particularly in Greek and Latin words.

A) In the accented open syllable

1) *æ* has usually

- a) the sound of the long *ī* (ie): *ægis*, *pæan*, *dæmon*, *Cæsar*, *Ælia*, *Æacus*, *Æantæum* (conformably with the rules for *e*).

Here appears in proparoxytones the sound of the short *ē*: *Dædalus* and others; so too under the subordinate accent: *æstivåtion*, *Ænobårbus*, *ærugineous*; yet not without exception, since even here a long *ī* appears, as, for instance, in *Ægipan*, *Æginæta* and others. Occasionally *e* is written instead of *æ*, especially where it is short, as in *éstival*, *éstivåtion*; but also for *æ* long, as in *Égypt*.

- β) in syllables long by position *æ* has the sound of the short *ē*: *Ætna*, *æstivåtion*.

2) *æ* written separate has on the other hand

- a) the sound of the long *ē* (Engl. *ā*) in such names as *Mæes*, and in *Gāel*, *gāelic* (properly *Gā-el*, but commonly pronounced = *gāl*); also *æeriform*, *æeronaut* are spoken with a silent *e*.
- β) short *ē* occurs in a syllable long by position, as in *Maæstricht* (pronounced *mæstrikt*).

B) In the unaccented syllable *æ* appears as *ī* (ie), analogously to *ē*, mostly in an open syllable immediately before the accented syllable: *Æthúsa*, *phænómenon*, *cæsúra*; but also in its original position, for instance in *æsthétic*. — In *Michael* the two syllables *a-el* are usually blended into one; in *Michaëlmass* *a* is to be regarded as totally neglected.

Ai and **ay** are related to each other like **ei** and **ey**, so that **a** commonly appears at the end of stems or derivatives, **ai** at the beginning and in the middle.

A has

A) in the accented syllable

- 1) regularly the sound of the long **ē** (Engl. **ā**): **āim**, **āid**, **pāir**, **pāil**, **fāith**, **tāil**, **māiden**, **bāiliwick**, **obtain**. Before the sound becomes deeper, as in **pāir**, **fāir**, **chāire**, **glāire**, **lāird**.

In **aisle**, **ai** is spoken like **i**.

Occasionally in the close syllable **ai** receives the sound of the short **ā**: **plāid**, **rāillery**; according to some also in **plāintiff**, commonly pronounced **plāintiff**.

In some words it sounds **ē**: **wāinscot** (pronounced **wenscot** said, **saith** and **says** from **to sāy**, compare Old-Engl. **sedes** used; **wāistcoat** also is pronounced in common life **wēscot**. Orthoepists almost unanimously give the pronunciation of **ai** **i** against, some even in **agāin**, as that of **ē**. Compare Old-Engl. **agen**, **ayenst**.

- B) In the unaccented syllable **ai** standing alone before the accented syllable is **ē** long: **āizōum**, likewise in the close syllable **māin**, **tāin** (according to some like **ä**) and in the middle of an open syllable: **bāttāilous** (according to some like **battāulous** in Milton. In the unaccented final syllable **ai** is mostly shortened into the power of **i**, as in **mōuntain**, **Britāin**, **fōuntain**, **villāin**, **cāptain**, **chāplain**, **cūrtain**, **trāvail** &c. Compare Old-Engl. **parfit**, modern French **parfait**, Old French **parfeit**, **parfit**.

Ay passes likewise

A) in the accented syllable

- 1) for a long **ē** (Engl. **ā**): **pāy**, **dāy**, **awāy**, **delāy**, **plāyen**, **plāyhouse**; in the word **māyor** **o** is disregarded, so that it sounds like **māre**.

Quay, according to Sheridan equal to **kā**, is generally pronounced like **kē** (**ki**); so too in **quāyage**.

It sounds like a short **ē** in **says** (see above).

In **ay**=**yes**, the two vowels are sounded: **ā-i**.

- B) In the unaccented syllable the **ē**-sound becomes somewhat shortened; more observable in common life in the names of the days of the weeks: **Sūnday**, **Mōnday** &c. almost **ā**. **Mōray** is pronounced like **Mūrrē**.

Ao serves to represent a vowel only in **gāol**, **gāoler**, which are pronounced and even spelt **jāil**, **jāiler**. **Caoutchouc** is pronounced like the English **coóchoók** (with a long and a short **u**).

Au and **aw** are equal in their phonetic relations, so that they often interchange with each other in writing at the beginning of a syllable, as they did in former times especially.

Au represents

A) in the accented syllable chiefly

- 1) the sound of the long **ā** (**ā**): **cāught**, **tāught**, **dāughter**, **lāud**, **sāuce**, **vāult**, **āutumn**, **sāusage**, **āutobiógraphy**.

In modern times *au* before an *n* is exceptionally pronounced like a long *ā* (ā): *āunt*, *tāunt*, *dāunt*, *jāunt*, *gāunt*, *māund*, *lāunch*, *pāunch*, *crāunch*; *lāundress*, *jāundice*, *lāundrey*, *sāunter*. *askāunce*, *Stāunton*, *Lāunceton* &c. Some such words have nevertheless collateral forms in *an* and are derived from words in *an*. Many orthoepists give many of these however the *a*-sound; most give it to the verb to *vāunt* in contradistinction to *vāunt* = *van*.

Also before *gh* the same sound is given to the *au*, in: *drāugh* (also spelt *drāff*) *drāughts*, *lāugh* (where *gh* sounds like *f*).

So too in some French words the sound of the French *au* = *ō*, is preserved: *hāutboy*, *marāuder*, *roquelāure*.

In gauge, French *jauge*, *au* is pronounced like the English *ā* (= *gāge*).

- 2) Short *a* (Engl. *ö*) represents *au* in *lāurel*, *lāudanum* and, according to some, also in *cāuliflower*.

B) In the unaccented syllable *au* retains the sound of the long *ā* (ā): *āustere*, *āuthórity*; in *débauchée* the unaccented *au* has the slightly shortened sound of the long *ō*. In the compound *hautgout* it retains the French pronunciation.

Aw, often interchanging with an initial *au*, but never with a final *au* in genuinely English words, has always the sound of the long *ā* (ā): *drāw*, *hāwk*, *tāwny*, *tāwdry*, *āwkwārd*.

O is analogous to *a* in receiving, in a higher degree than other vowels, a particular tinge from the succeeding consonant.

A) In the accented syllable the *o* receives

- 1) the short sound *ā* (Engl. *ö*), answering to the long *ā* (Engl. *aw*, *au*)

a) in the close syllable: *ōf*, *ōx*, *rōb*, *pōmp*, *prōmpt*, *fōnt*, *sōng*, *lōdge*, *crōtch*, *cōnfident*, *cōmpromise*, *cōmposition*. Words in *ff*, *ft*, *ss*, *st* and *th*, undergo a lengthening in pronunciation, as *off*, *cōffee*, *óften*, *moss*, *toss*, *gloss*, *lost*, *toast*, *froth*, *cloth*; yet modern orthoepists limit this lengthening to *o* before *ss*, *st* and *th*.

α) An exception is made by syllables ending with a single *r*, or with *r* before another consonant, in which the guttural occasions a lengthening and deepening of the vowel sound: *nor*, *for*, *abhór*, *orb*, *thorp*, *short*, *Lord*, *north*, *form*, *horse*, *corpse* &c.; *fórmer*, *enórmons* &c.

We find a more decided prolongation of the vowel in port (and except *impórtant*, *impórtunate* c. der. everywhere in the syllable port), *fórt*, *spórt*, *fórd*, *swórd*, *fórt*, *córps*, *porch*, *pórk*, *fórm* (= bench), *wórn*, *tórn*, *shórn*, *hórde*, *fórcé*, *fórcé*, *divórcé*. Two *r*'s restore the shortness: *hórror*, *hórrer*.

- β) *o* before *r*, when the vowel is preceded by *w*, has the sound of the short *o*, Engl. *ü* (which, as a shortening of the long *ō*, yet with a shade of the Highdutch *ö*, is to be regarded as similar to the inclination of the short *ā* towards the High-

dutch *ā*): worm, word, world, worse, wórship, worst, worth, and even before double *r* in wórry; similarly with *w* preceding *n* in won (from to win, but not wón = to dwell) wónder, and, on account of the prefixing of a *w*, not written, in one, once; compare won = one (CHAUCER) *wan* and *wance* in dialects.

But also in other words *o* becomes *ū* in pronunciation without a *w*'s preceding, especially before *n* and *m*, as in ton, son, in móney, mónetary even in an open syllable; front, af-frónt, mónday, month; particularly when the *n* is followed by a guttural: monk, mónkey, mónger, móngrel, móng-corn, amóng, amóngst, bóngrace; also in sponge, allóng; and when a labial or *m* follows the *m*: lomp, rhomb, bomb, bómbast, bómbasin, pómmage, pómmel, pómpion.

Here also occurs a number of words with the prefix *con* and *com* (whereas others retain *ō*): cónduit, cónjure, cón-stable; cómpass, cómpany, cómbat, cómfit, cómfiture, cómfort, discómfít, discómfórt &c.; also cómfrey the name of a plant. The same sound also takes place in attórn, attórney, as well as in dost and doth (from to do).

- γ) It receives the sound of the long *ō* before a final *ll*, before *ll*, *k*: röll, ströll, öld, böld, göld, Bólton, sóldier, bólt, cólt &c.; rarely before a simple *l*: patröl, párasöl, and before *l*st: bōlster, hōlster; also before a silent *l*: fōlk.

ō remains short in löll, döll; of course also in föllow, höllow.

In a few words in *ss*, *st* and *th* this prolongation likewise exists: gröss, engröss; mōst (of course also in compounds in the unaccented syllable: útmost &c.), pōst, hōst, ghōst; löth (also löath), bōth, slōth (compare Old-Engl. slōwthe SKELTON ed. DYCE I. p. CVII).

By some quoth is placed here; yet it is more correctly pronounced with short *u*; compare Anglo-Sax: *cv ā ð* with short *ā*.

Of other words belong here cōmb, ōmber, ōnly and dōn't, wōn't.

- δ) *o* sounds like a short Highdutch *u* (Engl. *oo*) in wolf, Wólston, Wólstoncraft, Wólsey, Wólverhåmpton, Wórcester (pronounced wooster) and wórsted (by some pronounced woosted with a rejected *r*) gom (=man).

- ε) Lastly like a long Highdutch *u* in whom, womb, tomb.

- ζ) The sound of the short *ā* (*ō*) prevails also in the accented antepenultimate or prior open syllable, unless the initial consonant of the following is not followed by a double vowel beginning with *i* or *e*: ōminous, pōpulace, corrōborate, astōnishment, cúriōsity; in compounds: apōlogy, astrōnomy, biōgraphy &c. — depōpulåtion, denōminåtion, cōronåtion, prōsecútion.

- ο is, however, exceptionally a long *ō* not only in derivative words with light derivative termination, as: cōgency, sōlary,

vōtary, vōtaress, vōtarist, nōtable; but also in those compounded with prōto: prōtocol, prōtoplast, prōto-type, prōtomārtyr.

In other words it has the sound of the short English ũ: cōlander, cōvenant, sōvereign, sōmerset and sōmersault, and drōmedary.

chōrister is pronounced like quirrister.

1) The sound of the long ō:

- a) in the accented open syllable followed by a vowel: pōet, pōem, pōetry, bōa, Mōab, Mōaphérnes; as well as where o makes a syllable of itself: ōmen, ōver, ōval, ōvary, except ōlid, ōrange; and where it is the final sound: lōl! bōl! hō! nō, prō, frō, sō, gō, ūndergō, also with an h after it: oh!

From the last case are excepted with the sound ū (Engl. oo): who, do, adō, of course also in dōing, and to, which becomes essentially shortened proclitically as a preposition, and also before the infinitive, and preserves the u-sound more decidedly only before vowels. To, however, sounds tō in tōward, tōwards.

- b) in the penultimate open syllable followed by an initial consonant: pōtent, dōtard, cōlon, cōgent.

The exceptions which take place here are not so many as with the vowels e and a; yet they are split into three sorts:

- a) Words in y have the sound of the short ā (ā): bōdy, cōpy; in id: parōtid, flōrid, sōlid; in ic: apostōlic, histōric, tōnic; in ish: mōnish, admōnish, astōnish, pōlish, abōlish, demōlish; in ile: dōcile; in it: prōfit, vōmit, repōsit, depōsit; in in: rōbin, rōsin; in ice, ise: nōvice, bōdice, prōmise; in el: mōdel, nōvel, brōthel, hōvel, grōvel; in er: prōper, hōver, chōler; in et: prōphet, cōmet, clōset; in est: mōdest, hōnest, fōrest; and anomalous words as Cōrinth, prōvince, Flōrence, mōdern, problēm, prōcess, prōgress, prōject, prōverb, sōlemn, Rōbert, lōzenge.

Much rarer are obscure vowels in the final syllable, age in fōrage, hōmage; al: mōral, cōral; ule: mōdule, nōdule, glōbule; and in anomalous words: mōnad, mōnarch, grōgram; hōnour, prōlogue, jōcund, cōlumn, prōduce, prōduct, vōlume.

- β) Some words have the sound of the English short ũ: cōny (yet else pronounced cōny; the former popularly), mōney, hōney; stōmach, rōmage (also spelt rummage); bōrage, bōrough, thōrough; cōlour; cōvey; ōven, slōven, cōvin; cōver, recōver, cōvert, plōver, gōvern; cōlonel (pronounced cūrnel); shōvel; cōvet; ōther, mōther, pōther, brōther, smōther, nōthing; cōzen (also coz), dōzen; commonly also the compound twōpence.

- γ) o sounds like ũ (Engl. oo) in bōsom and the compound wōman. in the plural of which it is like ī: wōmen.

c) in the syllable ending in a consonant with a subsequent mute *r*: whole, thrône, dote, còde, slope, globe, thòse, gloze; the vowel is dimmed before *r*: shòre.

o sounds exceptionally like a long *ū* (Engl. *oo*) in Frome (a town in Somerset), move, prove, behòve) (also spelt behoove), lose, whose and gambóge; — occasionally like a short English *ū* in: some, come, becòme; done, none, one (see above); love, dove, shove, glove, abòve.

On the contrary it has the sound of the short *ō* in gòne, begòne &c., shòne. Some give to the participle gone the broader sound; compare the Lowdutch gān.

d) in the accented syllable before the initial consonant followed by two vowels, whereof the former is *i* or *e*: quòtient, cròsier, censorian, ambròsia, ambròsial, colloquial, zòdiac, òpiate, fòliage, schòliast, fòlio, explosiòn, devòtion, empòrium; hýperbòrean, corpòreal, petròleum. Solitary exceptions, as tòiary, ònion, pòniard and a few others occur even here.

B) In the unaccented syllable *o* in general is shortened, both in the open and the close syllable, as also where the close syllable is followed by a mute *e*; yet it preserves its accentual tinge in a higher degree than *a*, except in final syllables. Here it mostly passes over, like *a*, into the dimmer sound, which approaches the English *ū*.

The sound of *o* can therefore in general be considered as losing less of its otherwise determined quantity before the accented syllable; as, for example, where it makes a syllable by itself: omít, oméntum, obéy, tobácco; and even in the close syllable: pom-pósi-ty, pollúte, démonstráti-on; whereas after the accented syllable in the interior of the word the sound appears slighter and weakend in its accentual tinge: hármony, cómmoner. At the end, on the other hand, it loses essentially, as in kíngdom, méthod; Húdson, Hóuston, Ríchmond; even where a mute *e* would seem to maintain it clearer, for example, in the termination some: hándsome; quárrelsome. Even in compounds, as tóuch-stone, limestone, Eddystone, it is dimmed, as in púrpose; and almost as much in pédagogue, diálogo, démagogue and the like, wherein the composition is no longer sensible.

Or is also equivalent to the final syllables *ir*, *er*, *ar*: áctor, émpéror, érror, órator, whereas the final syllable is suffered to come forth clearer in words recognized as Latin ones, as in stúpor, cálor. Thus it happens that, before *n* in many frequent words in *ton*, *son* and some others, *o* is to be considered as totally silent (see below); whereas elsewhere before the nasal *a* short, rapid *ō* is adhered to, even in this position, as in démon, félon, únison, horizon, séxton &c.

The combinations in which *o* is employed to represent vowel sounds are *oo*, *oe* (and *æ*), *oi*, *oy*, *oa*, *ou* and *ow*.

Oo serves essentially

A) in the accented syllable ever

to represent the long \bar{u} : $\bar{l}\bar{o}\bar{o}$, $\bar{t}\bar{o}\bar{o}$, $\bar{b}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{m}$. $\bar{g}\bar{l}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{m}$, $\bar{s}\bar{p}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{n}$, $\bar{t}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{l}$, $\bar{p}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{r}$, $\bar{b}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{t}$, $\bar{f}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{d}$, $\bar{r}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{s}\bar{t}$; $\bar{l}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{s}\bar{e}$, $\bar{c}\bar{h}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{s}\bar{e}$, $\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{z}\bar{e}$, $\bar{s}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{t}\bar{h}\bar{e}$.

Usage has exceptionally favoured α) a shortening of the \bar{u} into \bar{u} in syllables ending with the guttural k , as well as in some ending with d , and even with l : $\bar{l}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{k}$, $\bar{r}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{k}$, $\bar{b}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{k}$, $\bar{b}\bar{r}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{k}$, $\bar{s}\bar{h}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{k}$, $\bar{h}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{k}$, $\bar{c}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{k}$ and $\bar{c}\bar{r}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{k}$; — $\bar{f}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{t}$, $\bar{s}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{t}$; — $\bar{w}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{d}$, $\bar{s}\bar{t}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{d}$, $\bar{h}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{d}$, $\bar{g}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{d}$; — $\bar{w}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{l}$.

β) the pronunciation of oo as a long \bar{o} in $\bar{f}\bar{l}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{r}$ and $\bar{d}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{r}$, also in $\bar{b}\bar{r}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{c}\bar{h}$.

γ) as a short Engl. \bar{u} in $\bar{b}\bar{l}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{d}$ and $\bar{f}\bar{l}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{d}$.

B) In the unaccented syllable oo appears shortened into \bar{u} : $\bar{l}\bar{i}\bar{v}\bar{e}\bar{l}\bar{i}\bar{h}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{d}$, $\bar{c}\bar{i}\bar{l}\bar{d}\bar{h}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{d}$, $\bar{k}\bar{n}\bar{i}\bar{g}\bar{h}\bar{t}\bar{h}\bar{o}\bar{o}\bar{d}$.

Oe is to be distinguished from the form α , united in print, which points to a Greek-Latin origin.

Oe serves

A) in the accented syllable, to denote the long \bar{o} : $\bar{r}\bar{o}\bar{e}$, $\bar{f}\bar{o}\bar{e}$, $\bar{t}\bar{o}\bar{e}$, $\bar{d}\bar{o}\bar{e}$, $\bar{s}\bar{l}\bar{o}\bar{e}$, $\bar{h}\bar{o}\bar{e}$; $\bar{o}'\bar{e}\bar{r}$ (= $\bar{o}\bar{v}\bar{e}\bar{r}$) is pronounced similarly.

Exceptions are the long sound \bar{u} (Engl. $\bar{o}\bar{o}$) in $\bar{s}\bar{h}\bar{o}\bar{e}$, $\bar{c}\bar{a}\bar{n}\bar{o}\bar{e}$; and that of the short English \bar{u} in $\bar{d}\bar{o}\bar{e}\bar{s}$.

B) Even in the unaccented syllable oe , as long \bar{o} , is little reduced in its quantity: $\bar{f}\bar{e}\bar{l}\bar{l}\bar{o}\bar{e}$, $\bar{a}\bar{l}\bar{o}\bar{e}$; as in the compounds $\bar{r}\bar{o}\bar{c}\bar{k}\bar{d}\bar{o}\bar{e}$, $\bar{m}\bar{i}\bar{s}\bar{t}\bar{l}\bar{e}\bar{t}\bar{o}\bar{e}$.

\mathcal{O} , on the otherhand, for which an English e is often substituted in writing is equal

A) in the accented syllable:

1) to the long \bar{I} (Engl. \bar{e}) before a vowel, where it constitutes a syllable of itself, and in an open penultimate, as well as in an open syllable before an initial consonant, followed by a double vowel beginning with i or e : $\mathcal{O}\bar{e}\bar{a}\bar{x}$, $\mathcal{O}\bar{e}\bar{o}\bar{n}\bar{u}\bar{s}$, $\mathcal{O}\bar{e}\bar{n}\bar{e}\bar{a}$, $\bar{f}\bar{o}\bar{e}\bar{t}\bar{u}\bar{s}$, $\bar{A}\bar{n}\bar{t}\bar{o}\bar{e}\bar{c}\bar{i}$.

Here it is found exceptionally shortened into \bar{e} (\bar{e}) in diarrhetic.

2) It is equal to the short \bar{o} (\bar{e}) in many words in the accented antepenultimate or a prior syllable, as in $\bar{a}\bar{s}\bar{s}\bar{a}\bar{f}\bar{o}\bar{e}\bar{t}\bar{i}\bar{d}\bar{a}$ (compare Engl. $\bar{f}\bar{e}\bar{t}\bar{i}\bar{d}$), $\bar{e}\bar{c}\bar{u}\bar{m}\bar{e}\bar{n}\bar{i}\bar{c}\bar{a}\bar{l}$, $\bar{e}\bar{c}\bar{o}\bar{n}\bar{o}\bar{m}\bar{i}\bar{c}\bar{s}$. Yet it remains even there a long \bar{I} in less usual words: $\mathcal{O}\bar{e}\bar{b}\bar{a}\bar{l}\bar{u}\bar{s}$, $\mathcal{O}\bar{e}\bar{t}\bar{y}\bar{l}\bar{u}\bar{s}$, even $\mathcal{O}\bar{e}\bar{d}\bar{i}\bar{p}\bar{u}\bar{s}$ and $\mathcal{O}\bar{e}\bar{c}\bar{u}\bar{m}\bar{e}\bar{n}\bar{i}\bar{u}\bar{s}$.

B) In the unaccented syllable, especially before the accented syllable, it continues similar to the Engl. \bar{e} in the like case: $\bar{e}\bar{o}\bar{d}\bar{e}\bar{m}\bar{a}$, $\mathcal{O}\bar{e}\bar{c}\bar{h}\bar{a}\bar{l}\bar{i}\bar{a}$.

The concurrence of α with a following i and u is found in a few French words: $\bar{e}\bar{i}$ in $\bar{e}\bar{e}\bar{l}\bar{i}\bar{a}\bar{d}$, is denoted in pronunciation by the diphthong $\bar{e}\bar{i}$ ($\bar{e}\bar{i}$), according to some by the Engl. \bar{e} (\bar{I}), according to others even otherwise; $\bar{e}\bar{u}$ in $\bar{m}\bar{a}\bar{n}\bar{o}\bar{e}\bar{u}\bar{v}\bar{r}\bar{e}$ sounds \bar{u} , but, among scholars, conformably with the French pronunciation.

Oi and Oy are in the same predicament as ei and ey , ai and ay ; in the accented syllable they are both mostly diphthongs.

Oi

A) is a diphthong in the accented syllable as *ói*, yet with greater preponderance of a deep *o*, than could be represented by the old and middle Highdutch *oi* (cf. *Moin* = *Moenus*; *froide* = *freude*) and is therefore not quite equal to the Highdutch *eu*. *oi* is comparable with the combination of the Engl. *aw* and *ē*: *oil*, *oint*, *moist*, *voice*, *adróit*, *devóid*, *ávoirdupóis*, *fóison*, *hóiden*.

In French words not yet assimilated, as *devóir*, *éscritóir*, *scrutóir*, *réservóir*, *oir* is exceptionally pronounced almost like the English *wâr*. In *turkóis* also *turquóise* and *Iroquóis* *ois* is pronounced like *is* (Engl. *ēz*); *choir* sounds like its other form *quire*.

B) In the unaccented syllable *oi* is found shortened into a slight *ī*, in *tórtóise* and *shámois* or *chámois* (pronounced *shāmmi*); *pórpoise* sounds like *porpus* and is sometimes spelt so or *pórpass*, in *ávoirdupois* *oir* sounds like a rapid *ēr*. *Cónnoisséur* is pronounced like *cónnaissūr*.

Oy

A) is a diphthong as *ói*; it belongs essentially to the end of stems: *boy*, *toy*, *coy*, *joy*, *allóy*, *jóyousness*, of course retaining its sound in compounds, as *háutboy* (pronounced *hōboy*), *víceroý* and many others.

Oa serves

A) in the accented syllable almost always to represent the long *ō*: *ōak*, *mōan*, *lōaf*, *pōach*, *bōat*, *bōast*, *cōax*; a final *r* tinges the sound as it does *ō*: *ōar*, *bōard*, *cōarse*.

It has exceptionally the value of the long *ā* (Engl. *aw*) in *broad*, *abrōad* and *groat*. In the compound *ōatmeal* the vowel sound is heard in common life shortened into *ō*.

B) In the unaccented syllable *oa* remains a long *ō* with a slight loss of quantity: *cócōa*, *bézōar*. It is often shortened into *ū* in common life in the compound *cúpboard*.

Ou and *ow* are in general in the same predicament as *au*, *aw* and *eu*, *ew*.

Ou appears

A) in the accented syllable:

1) chiefly as the diphthong *áu* (whereby is to be observed that many words, ending with *gh*, *ght*, *l* and *r* with another consonant, belong, with others to the categories following below): *out*, *ounce*, *thou*, *plough*, *bough*, *flour*, *hour*, *foul*, *proud*, *pouch*, *doubt*, *mount*, *pound*, *mouthe*, *grouse*, *lounge*, *doughty*.

2) *ou* represents a long vowel, and that in three modes:

a) partly a long *ā* (English *aw*) in words ending in *ght*: *ought*, *nought*, *bought*, *brought*, *fought*, *wrought*, *thought*, *methought*, *sought*, *besought*.

Only *drought* and *bought* (= a twist) have *áu*.

b) partly a long *ō* (Engl. *ō*) in syllables ending with a mute *gh*,

l and *r*, mostly with another consonant following: *dōugh*, *thōugh*, *trōul* (mostly spelt *troll*), *sōul*, *mōuld*, *shōulder*, *smōulder*, *pōult*, *pōultry*, *pōultice*, *cōulter* (also spelt *colter*); in those in *our*, *o* is obscured by the guttural: *fōur* (also *fōurtēen*), *bōurn*, *mōurn*, *cōurt*, *accōurt*, *cōurtier*, *gōurd*, *gōurdiness*, *fōurth*, *cōurse*, *recōurse*, *sōurce*, *resōurce*, *tōurnament*, *tōurney*.

- c) partly as a long *ū* (Engl. *oo*) more rarely in Germanic words, more frequently in French ones which preserve their original sound: *ōuphe*, *ōuphen*, *ouse* (also spelt *ooze*), *ōusel* or *ōuzel*, *bouse*, *through*, *you*, *your*, *youth*, *houp* (= *hoopoo*, *hoopoe*), *wound* (also pronounced with *āu*), *shough!* — *soup*, *croup*, *group*, *cōuchee*, *capōuch* (also spelt *capóch*), *cartōuch*, *rouge*, *gouge*, *bouge*, *bōugie*, *accōutre*, *gout*, *surtōut*, *ragout*, *sous* (also in the unaccented final syllable of *rendezvous*), *agōuti*, *bōutefeu*, *route*, *fōumart*, *gōujeers*, *trōubadoūr*, *tour*, *tōurist*, *āmōur*, *contōur*, *cōurier*, *fōurbe*, and many others; *bouillon* is pronounced *boolyōn*.

3) it likewise stands in the place of the three corresponding short sounds:

- a) short *ā* (Engl. *ō*) in a few words in which *gh* ends with the sound of *k* or *f* in the stem: *gh* = *k* *shōugh*, (also spelt *shock*), *lōugh* (= *lake*), *hōugh*, *to hōugh*; *gh* = *f*: *lōugh* (= *pret. laughed*), *trōugh*, *cōugh*.

- b) short Engl. *ū* (between *ō* and *ō*), in a few stems ending in *gh* and *f*: *rough* (= *rüff*), *enōugh*, *toūgh*, *slough*, *choūgh*; and in *ng*, *nk*: *yōung*, *yōungster*, *yōunker*. The same shortening takes place in many words, mostly of French origin, particularly before *r* in position, but also without it, as well as before *pl* and *bl*: *adjoūr*, *joūr*nal, *joūr*ney, *toūr*niquet, *gōūr*net (also spelt *gurnet*) *cōūr*tesan, *cōūr*tesy, *cōūr*teous, *bōūr*geon, *scoūr*ge; — *nōūr*ish, *flōūr*ish, *cōūr*rage, *encoūr*age; — *cōū*ple, *accōū*ple, *cōū*plet; — *dōū*ble, *trōū*ble; besides in *toū*ch, *joū*st, *cōū*sin and *cōū*ntry. — The original diphthongs are also thus shortened in *hoū*swife (pronounced *hūzwif*, popularly *hūzzif*), as well as *groundsel* in familiar speech *grūnsel*, and *sōū*thern, *sōū*therly sounds like *sū*thern, *sū*therly, *sōū*thward like *sū*thard, *Sōū*thwark like *sū*thark. Generally speaking the original diphthong often passes over in dialects into *ū*: as in *Warwickshire pound*, *found*, *ground* into *pūn*, *fūn*, *grūn*.

- c) short *ū* (Engl. *oo*) in *wōuld*, *shōuld* and *cōuld*.

B) In the unaccented syllable the accentual tinge of the specific sounds is not often maintained without considerable shortening, as in the compound pronoun.

The diphthong *āu*, especially, is often shortened into *ū* in names of places compounded of *mouth*: *Ēxmōuth*, *Fālmōuth*, *Wēymōuth*, *Sīdmōuth*.

The long *ō*, which maintains itself in slightly reduced duration, in *thórōugh*, *bórōugh*, *intercōurse*, becomes essentially weakened with the augmentation of the word: *bórōugh-monger*, *thórōughness*, *thórōugh-going* &c.

In French words the *ū*-sound is maintained especially before the accented syllable: *Louísa*, *rouléau*, *routine*, *bouquet*, *boutade*, *fougade*, *toupée* and *toupét*, *coupée*, *accouchéur* &c.

The sound appears the most slightly in the terminations *ous*, *ious* as a glib *ū*: *lúminous*, *ruínous*, *fámous*, *jóyous*, *virtuous*, — *ódious*, *sérious*, *stúdiuous*; in the termination *our* arises the dimming peculiar to *or*: *lábour*, *cándour*, *sáviour*. Moderns also often substitute *or* for this syllable.

Ow sounds

A) in the accented syllable

- 1) usually like the diphthong *áu*: *now*, *bow*, *bówels*, *prow*, *brow*, *vow*, *how*, *cow*; *owl*, *fowl*, *scowl*, *lówér*, (= *to look black*), *shówer*, *howl*, *cowl*, *growl*; *town*, *down*, *clown*, *gown*; *blowze*; *Pówel*, *Hówel* &c., *pówder*, *cóward*.
- 2) a) in other words as a long *ō*: *mōw*, *lōw*, *belōw* (from *thā* derived *lōwer* = *to bring lōw*), *rōw*, *bōw*, *blōw*, *flōw*, *tōw*, *trōw*, *thrōw*, *sōw*, *snōw*, *slōw*, *stōw*, *bestōw*, *shōw* (*o* course with its derivative *shōwer*), *crōw*, *grōw*, *glōw*, *knōw* — and *ōwe*. Only in derivatives is a concluding consonant found: *ōwn*, *flōwn*, *glōwn*, *grōwth*.
- b) the sound of the long *ū* is rare: *flowk* (= *flook*) *flounder*.
- 3) In a few words *ow* is equal to a short vowel:
 - a) it is shortened into *ō* in *knōwledge*;
 - b) into a short *ū* (Engl. *oo*) in *owler*.

B) In the unaccented syllable *ow* is in general a long *ō*, with but little loss of quantity: *nárrōw*, *fóllōw*, *wínnōw*, *hállōw*, *yélōw*, *Glásgōw*. But in *béllows* and *gállows* the sound of the short *ū* is given to *ow*. With the amplification of the words through subsequent unaccented syllables there arises a similar glib shortness: *hóllowness*, *bórrower*; likewise in compounds, as *hól low-eyed*, *Hállowel*; but *Hárrōw-gate*.

U is divided essentially into sounds with the power of *o* and the diphthong *iū*.

A) In the accented syllable *u* has

- 1) the short sound lying between the Highdutch *o* and *ö* in the close syllable: *plüm*, *bün*, *lüll*, *düll*, *güll*, *pürr*, *fur*, *büt*, *büd*, *süch*, *Düch*, *exült*, *türf*, *luxury* (*x* = *cs*), *úsher* (s originally *sc* and *ss*), *büffalo*, *cültivate*, *úsquebáugh*.

Exceptionally, *u* receives

- a) in a series of words mostly in *ll* or *l* in position, as well as *sh*, and a few others the sound of the short *ū* (Engl. *oo*): *pull*, *bull*, *full*, *púilly*, *púllet*, *búilly*, *búllion*, *búllet*, *búletin*, *búllace*, *búllock*, *fúlling-mill*, *fúller*, *fúllery*,

fúllage; búlrush, búlwark; púlpit, Fúlham; — push, bush, búshel, cúshion, cúshat; — besides puss; put (but not in the substantive pút=clown), bútcher, púd-ding; cúckoo and cúcquean.

β) it sounds like a long *ū* (Engl. *oo*) in *rūth*, *trūth*.

γ) like the diphthong *iū* (see below) in *impūgn*, *expūgn*, *oppūgn*, *repūgn*, *propūgn* (wherein *g* is silent) and their inflectional forms and the derivatives in *er*: *oppūgner*, not in others, for instance *repūgnant* (with a sounding guttural *g*).

2) it appears on the other hand as a diphthong *iū* in such wise that *ū* receives the greatest weight in utterance, and *i* therefore, weakened as a vowel, is in process of being hardened into the consonant *y*, and often (like the unaccented *i* or *e* before a second unaccented vowel) uniting with a prior dental, when *ū* alone is a vowel, for example *sūre* (=shōōr). The cases of this sort are mentioned along with the respective consonants.

α) the diphthong *iū* belongs to every open syllable under the accent: *ūnit*, *pūpil*, *fūmy*, *dūbious*, *cūbic*; *exūberant*, *būlimy*, *fūneral*, *dūplicate*, *cūbature*, *cūlinary*; *fūsi-lier*, *accūmulātion*. The *i* is totally lost after *r* and *rh*: *rūmour*, *prūdent*, *frūgal* *crūel*, *rhubarb*; it appears very slightly uttered after *l*: *lūcid*, *lūdicrous*; represented in writing by Smart: *l'ōōcid*, *l'ōōdicrous*; as well as after *i*: *jūry*, as it were *j'ōōry*. The pronunciation of *cūcumber* with the diphthong *ai* instead of *iū* belongs to the uneducated; yet the first syllable in *būcanīer* as well as in *Būchan*, passes for short. Many also say *pūmice* instead of *pūmice*.

As exceptions in which *u* in an open syllable represents short sounds originally foreign to it, the cases are to be considered in which it

α) sounds as a short *i*: *busy*, *būsily*, *būsiness* compare the Old-Engl. *bisyhed*, *bysischyppe*.

β) as a short *ē*: *būry*, *Būry*, *būrial* compare Old-Engl. *beriel*, *beryd* (=buried); dialectically *berrin* (=funeral).

γ) as a short *u*: *sūgar* (pronounced *shoogar*).

δ) in the syllable ending in a consonant followed by an organic and unorganic mute *e*: *ūse*, *mūse*, *repūte*, *fūme*, *dūke*, *excūse*.

Here too the *i* of the diphthong falls out after *r*: *rūde*, *abstrūse*; after *l* and *j* the slighther utterance of *i* takes place, as, above *lūte*, *Lūke*, *Jūne*. With a prior *y* consonant *i* of course coalesces likewise with it completely: *yūle*.

ε) In the unaccented syllable the short and the diphthong *u* separate. In the syllable closed by a consonant (not followed by *e* mute) the short sound *ū* remains to the *u*, although pronounced more glibly: *pūlmónical*, *cūnctátion*, *pūrlóin*, *cūcūmber*.

Compounds with the unaccented *ful* (=full) preserve the sound of the Highdutch *ū* (Engl. *oo*): *gāinful*, *hōpeful*. It also appears before the accented syllable in *hurrah!* *huzzá!* *hussár*.

The open diphthong syllable retains in general its accentual tinge with its quantitative weakening, more decidedly before than after the accented syllable: *únánimous*, *púnition*; *régúlar*, *distribútive*, *constitúent*. After an *r* a feeble intonation of *i* maintains itself: *érúдите*, *férúla*, *virúlent* = *ér'oodite* &c. A mute *e* maintains the diphthong clearer: *vólúble*, *réctitúde*, *púrpúre*, *óvertúre*; yet the termination (*s*)ure after the accented syllable undergoes the shortening of the close syllable: *méasure*, *léasure*, *tréasure*; so too in *cónjure*, and similarly in an open syllable in names of places in *bury*: *Sálisbury*, *Cáncerbury*. *u* is reduced even into *i* in *férrule*, *minute*, *lettuce* in general intercourse.

Among the compounds of *u* with other vowels a few, namely *ui* (*uy*) and *ue* serve to represent vowel or diphthongal sounds; in *ua* and *uo* (*uoy*) the *u*, as often with *ui* and *ue*, is hardened into a *w* consonant, or it serves other purposes, as a graphical sign handed down from other tongues.

Ui is employed

- A) In the accented syllable in general to denote the diphthong in (= *ú*): *súit*, *pursúit*, *súitor*, *súitably* &c., *núisance*, *púisne*, and loses after *r*, like *ú*, its *i*: *brúit*, *recrúit*, *frúit*, *brúise*, *crúise*; *i* is weakened after *l* and *j*: *slúice*, *júice*.

By way of exception it appears instead of the short *í* in *buíld* c. der. Compare Old-Engl *bilder* = builder (CHAUCER).

- B) In the unaccented syllable it has the sound of the short *í*: *biscuit*, *circuit*, *circuitéer*, *conduit*.

After *q*, *u* commonly stands as a Semi-consonant *w*: *quill*, *quib*, *quick*, *squint*, *antiquity*; except in *hárlequin*, *pálanquín*, in which *qu* = *k*. *U* has almost the same effect after *c* (= *k*) in *cuisse*, *cuinage*, *cuirass*. This is also the case after *g*: *guíniad*, *distínguish*, *ánguish*, *extínguish*, *lánguish*, *lánguid*. After *g*, *u* sometimes only serves to indicate the guttural sound before *i*: *guíle*, *guíde*, *guíse*, *guild*, *guilt*, *Guillemot*, *guínea*, *guitár*. After *s* we may regard it almost hardened in the word *suite*, properly a French word.

Uy sounds in *buy* like *ei*.

Else it serves as a half consonant *w* after *q*: *óbloquý*, *solíloquý*.

After *g*, *u* is the sign of its guttural sound: *Guý*, *róguý*, *plāguý*.

Ue is likewise

- A) in the accented syllable at the end a representative of the diphthong *iú*: *húe*, *cúe*; the *i* is lost after *r*: *rúe*, *trúe*; it is weakened after *l*: *blúe*, *glúe*, *clúe*.
- B) In the unaccented syllable it represents the same diphthongal final sound slightly shortened: *árgúe*, *ágúe*, *virtúe*; in *issue* *s* becomes *sh* through the influence of *i* before *ue*. With the amplification of the word *ue* loses the *e* before another vowel (comp.

issuer) and passes into the sound of *u* under similar circumstances. This also happens when *e* remains before a consonant: *issueless*.

After *q* in the middle of a syllable it commonly represents *we*: *quench*, *quest*, *cónquest*, *quéstion*, *bánquet*; so also after *c* (= *k*) in *cuérpo*, after *g*: in *Guelf*, and after *s* in *ássuetude*, *mánsuetude*, *désuetude*. *Ue* after *q* and *g* also often serves solely to designate the guttural *k*- and *g*-sound as in *piquet*, *coquette*, *cónquer*, *cónquerer*, *chécquer*, *másquerade*; *guess*, *guest*, *guérdon*, *guérkin* (commonly *ghérkin*). At the end of a syllable *ue* is, in such a case mute: *oblique*, *intrigue*. See silence of the vowels.

Ua either lets its *u* pass into a half consonant *w* after *q*, *g*, *s* as in *quálicity*, *ántiquary*, *guáiacum*, *guáva*, *assuáge*, *persuáde*, *lá nguage*; or *u* serves after *q* and *g* to denote its guttural sound as in *piquant*, *quadrille*, *guárantée*, *Antigua*, (*antēgha*); *guard* and its derivatives, also *guárdian*.

Uo after *q* is equal to **wo**: *quôte*, *quotátion*, *quóndam*, *quoth* &c. *quo* is like *co* in *liquor*.

Uoi and **uoy** are compounds seldom occurring: *uoi* is found in *quoif*, *quoit*, also spelt *coif*, *coit*; and *Iroquois* (= *k*); *uoy* in *buoy*, which is pronounced *bwoy* and on board ship commonly *bōy*.

Silence of vowels.

We might reckon also as cases of the silence of vowels, those in which of two vowels employed to represent a sound, one suffices to denote the same sound, as in *seize* (= *sēze*), *wealth* (= *wēlth*) &c. The silence of vowels in the narrower sense, as we here apprehend it, is the rejection of vowel sounds in pronunciation which takes place in the unaccented syllable where, in writing, the vowel is nevertheless retained. It rests in general upon the same linguistic process by which the rejection of vowels in written language is conditioned. See below.

It is not however to be always taken as a complete extinction of the vocalization, since the voice here and there retains an almost evanescent vowel sound between the two consonants and even vowels which are to be uttered together. *e* is in general most subject to rejection. We consider separately the silence at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of the word.

1. **At the beginning.** The casting off of unaccented vowels is here usually denoted in writing, so that forms like *escalop* and *scallop*, *escutcheon* and *scutcheon*, *estate* and *state*, *esquire* and *squire*, *espy* and *spy* and others, appear concurrently. In other cases writing makes use of the sign of elision ' to indicate vowels cast off at the beginning of a word, by which the misunderstanding often obtains currency, that forms without a prior vowel, which were the original forms but are now abandoned, had arisen only by elision: 'bove along with *above* is the Anglosax *būfan*, Old-Engl. *bove*, as *gain* in compounds is the Anglosax: preposition *gāgn*

and not an abbreviation; 'fore along with afore = before, Anglosaxon *foran* (fore is still dialectic); 'gainst along with against, 'mong, 'mongst along with among, amongst; 'bout along with about Anglosaxon *būtan* (bout still dialectic, yet only = without, except, like but) and others. Many rejections, as in 's instead of *is* and *us*, 't instead of *it*, 'm instead of *am*, 'rt instead of *art*, 're instead of *are*, and many other forms, belong to the glibness of speech; their vowels, although retained in writing, may yet fall off in every day speech or in rapid reading.

2. In the Middle. In the interior of the word *i* is seldom cast out in pronunciation; thus in *búsin*ess, *Sálisbury*, *Gárdiner*, in common life in *véni*son and in the syllables *in* and *il* almost universally in *ráisi*ns. *bási*n and *cóusi*n, *dévil* and *évil*; but not in *láti*n, *púpi*l, *jérki*n and others, in which this pronunciation is vulgar. *i* is also not pronounced in careless pronunciation in ordinary (compare *órdn*ance along with *órdi*nance). *i* is mute before a vowel in *fásh*ion, *cúsh*ion.

The unaccented *e* is most frequently cast out in final syllables, but also outside of the final syllable in *Chélt*enham (pronounced *Chélt'*nam) and together with consonants in *wéd*nesday (pronounced *wénz*day), *Wéd*nesbury (the pronunciation of *wednes* has perhaps arisen out of Metathesis, as we at the commencement sec. XVII also find *wends*day written) and *Wórce*ster (pronounced *Wooste*r). In the final syllable *en*, *e* is commonly not audible after a non-liquid consonant, as, for example in *héav*en, *gárd*en, *lèss*en, *lóos*en, *hást*en, *stréng*then, *heár*ken, yet also in *bró*ken, *fál*len, *stó*len, *swó*llen. On the other hand it sounds in *ás*pen, *lév*en, *sló*ven, *hý*phen, *pát*ten, *mít*tens, *már*ten, *súdd*en, *góld*en, *héath*en, *déniz*en, *kít*chen, *tíck*en, *chíck*en and the like.

In words in *el*, *e* sometimes vanishes before *l*, in the same manner as in words in *le* after consonants, as *táck*le, *dázz*le, especially in words in *vel* and *zel*: *ná*vel, *rá*vel, *drí*vel, *sní*vel, *swí*vel, *shrí*vel, *shó*vel, *gró*vel, *é*asel, *wé*asel, *ó*usel, *crízz*el, *shéck*el and *chátt*el. This silence can here only pass for the exception.

In the inflective syllable *ed* of verbs *e* falls oft, except where a prior *t* or *d* of the stem prevents its expulsion: *ló*ved, *tá*lked, *plá*ced, *fét*ched, *fó*llowed, *júst*ified (but not in printed, *ádd*ed).

If participles of this form are used as adjectives (from which *dám*ned forms an exception) *e* remains audible: a *lé*arned man, a *cú*rsed thought; likewise in ulterior formations from the participles: *amá*zedly, *fó*rcedly, *amá*zedness, *de*fórmédness. Also in measured delivery, for example, the reading of holy writ, or in prayers, *e* is made more prominent.

In the inflexional syllable *es* of nouns and verbs *e* is mute, except when preceded by the dental letters *s*, *x* (= *cs*), *z*, *sh*, *c*, *ch*, *g* which cause a difficulty in the elision: *tá*mes, *sá*ves, *há*res, *cá*nes (on the other hand without elision *kíss*es, *bó*xes, *má*zes, *á*shes, *rá*ces, *bén*ches, *cá*ges). Greek and Latin words form here an exception; see above *e*. *e* also is rejected in *Thámes*.

In the obsolete inflexion of verbs *eth*, *e* was silent even in the 17th century (compare JOH. WALLIS *Gr. linguae Angl.* ed. 3. Hamb.

1672. p. 40), although Shakspeare still frequently treats *eth* in verse as a complete syllable.

Before a vowel *e* is mute in *serjeant*; likewise where it is employed to give the dental sound to *g* before obscure vowels: *págeant*, *véngeance*, *Geóрге*, *dúngeon*, *hábergeon*; or to *c* in a similar position: *péaceable*, *sérviceable*. In some words this is also the case after the dental *ch*: *lúncheon*, *púncheon*, *trúncheon*, *scútcheon*.

The vowel *a* is seldom rejected between consonants, as in *cára-bíne* and together with *u* in *víctual* (pronounced *vitt'l*). Before vowels this sometimes happens after *i*: *márrriage*, *cárrriage*, *míniature*, *párrliament*; also after *i* in *díamond* *a* is not pronounced in common life. Before *o* and *ou* in *extraórdinary* and *caoutchouc* (pronounced *cóochook*) it is rejected.

Except in *cólonel* (pronounced *cúrnél*) *o* is scarcely suppressed otherwise than in the final syllable *on*; where it may be considered as equivalent to an evanescent *é*, particularly after a prior *t* and *s*: *mutton*, *cóttón*, *Brighton*, *réason*, *máson*, *lérsson*; yet also after *d* in: *párdon*; and gutturals in: *bácon*, *béckon*, *réckon*.

The vowel *u* is naught for pronunciation, only when it is added to the guttural *g* before clear, and seldom before obscure vowels, as well as to *q* (= *k*). See *ui* above. Of its silence in *víctual* c. der. I have spoken above.

Poetry, as well as the language of common life, often expels unaccented vowels, which have not been touched upon here. Writing then commonly applies the mark of Elision ('). Poetry also frequently superfluously casts out the by itself mute vowel: thus, frequently the *e* from *ed* in the verb, except with a preceding *t* or *d*: *endu'd*, *fum'd*, *reign'd*, *revil'd*, *reviv'd*, *pleas'd*, *disgrac'd*, *provok'd*, *fabl'd*, *plann'd*, *serv'd*, *drench'd*, *lodg'd*, *confess'd*, *ask'd*, *perplex'd* &c. (COWPER Poems Lond. 1828). Even in Spencers age the drama only rarely used *ed* as a complete syllable, whereas lyric poetry offered still more numerous examples. Even the attributive participle is thus shortened, especially the proparoxytones: *His powder'd coat*; *the feather'd tribes*; *the scatter'd grain*; *his alter'd gait* (COWPER); yet also other forms: *His arch'd tail's azure* (ID); *ye curs'd rulers* (OTWAY); *the turban'd Delis*; *no high-crown'd turban* (BYRON *Bride of Abydos*). The verbal termination *est*, except with a prominent sibilant, had, even in the 17th century, a mute *e* in poetry, although Spencer frequently uses the complete syllable. It commonly appears with an elided *e*: *speak'st*, *look'st*, *talk'st*, *think'st* (OWTAY *Venice preserved* Lond. 1796), *stand'st*, *seem'st*, *hold'st* (COWPER); *see'st*; *dar'st*, *know'st* (L. BYRON). Even the *e* of the superlative termination is cast out thus with proparoxytones: *wicked'st*, *damned'st*, *pleasant'st*, *wholesom'st* (SHAKSPEARE ed. Collier), *cruel'st* (OTWAY). Lastly, in poetry an unaccented vowel betwixt consonants is frequently cast out after a short, and also after a long vowel, especially before *r* and *n*. The following are examples from Cowper:

r: gen'rous, op'ra, lib'ral, diff'rence, ev'ry, rev'rend, sov'reign, int'rest, flatt'ry, blund'rer; — av'rice; — mem'ry, am'rous, rhet'ric, vig'rous.

after diphthongs and long vowels: loit'rer; — bound'ry; — iv'ry, hum'rous; — num'rous, scen'ry, should'ring, dang'rous; — lab'ring, neighb'ring, fav'rite, sav'ry.

n: list'ning; — heav'nly, mulb'rry, reck'ning, pri'sner.

after diphthongs and long vowels: pois'ning, op'ning, ev'ning, chast'ning.

This is rarely the case before other consonants, as in en'my, ven'son, Abr'ham.

These instances are, properly, proparoxytones, yet other words also belong here, as heav'n, ev'n; the participles giv'n, ris'n, fall'n, stol'n. Of scarcely different nature is the substitution of an *e* cast out immediately after diphthongs in: bow'r, flow'r, tow'r and many more, since this crasis, like those elisions, only imparts a graphical fixity to the process which is going on in popular pronunciation.

Another sort of shortening, particularly of proparoxytones, not so much by casting out as by the hardening of one unaccented vowel before another, a process often shared by poetry with the speech of common life, must also find a place here.

To metrical licenses namely belongs the disregard of the short vowels *i*, *e*, and even of the diphthong unaccented *u* (= *iü*) before a following vowel, by which especially the compounds of *yi*, *ie*, *ia*, *io*; *ea*, *eo*; *ui*, *ua*, *uo* in terminations like *ying*, *ien*, *ient*, *ience*, *ier*, *ist*, *ian*, *iant*, *ial*, *iate*, *iage*, *io*, *ion*, *ior*, *iot*, *ean*, *eo*, *eon*, *eor*, *uing*, *uant*, *uance*, *uous* and others come into consideration, which in verse may appear as monosyllabic endings of words. This long known synizesis, permitted in modern English poetry in the widest extent (See Tycho Mommsen, Shaksp. *Romeo and Juliet*. Oldenburg 1859 p. 118) is based upon this; that *i* and *e* (= *i*) as well as *u*, in the glibness of utterance lose the vowel sound, and pass over into the halfvowels *y* (*j*) and *w*, whereby the dactyl is readily transformed into the trochee. Cultivated speech has gradually appropriated this transformation, so natural to popular language more and more in refined intercourse, so that at present the pronunciation of alien (älyën), brilliant (brilyänt), dominion (döminyön), as well as the blending of the *i*-sounds with preceding dentals (see below) whose hissing sounds at the end of the sixteenth century still seemed totally strange, and at present are still often reproved by orthoepists, has become a universal custom in the speech of educated persons. Synizeses certainly remain in verse, as: cárryîng, búrryîng, glóriôus, méteôr, Aéthiôp, Mántua, tempéstuôus and others, whereas in words in *iage* and others, as above observed, the synizesis has already transformed itself into a complete rejection of the second vowel.

3. **At the End.** The silence at the end of the word concerns the *e*, which is, partly; organic, that is to say, the remnant of a

primitive final syllable ending in a vowel or a consonant; or, inorganic, that is to say, without a basis in Etymology. In many words, especially those ending in *le*, *re* after a mute consonant *e* has arisen by metathesis from *el*, *er*. The organic *e* has been in many cases rejected, the inorganic in many cases added: the fluctuation is in this respect sec. XIV, uncommonly frequent. In modern English *e* after a simple or a mute and liquid consonant has been preserved or added, mostly after the long vowel, and its part is therefore, though mute, to serve for a sign of the prolongation of the syllable now ending with a consonant sound: *pāne*, *scēne*, *hēre*, *ōre*, *glēbe*, *weave*, *griēve*, *āble*, *idle*, *trifle*, *mētre*; even after a long syllable not accented: *thēatre*. *e* even stands after a short vowel, and after a mute and liquid consonant: *ripple*, *ruffle*, *rattle*, *drizzle*. It is rare after two other consonants, as after *st*: *tāste*; except in unassimilated foreign words, as *banquette* &c. and a few others, as *childe* (along with *child*). After a simple consonant, it sometimes stands, partly unorganically, after the accented syllable: *āte*, *bāde*, *hāve*, *dōve*, *glōve*, *lōve*, *cōme*, *ōne*, *nōne*; *wēre*. It frequently concludes unaccented derivative syllables: *rāpine*, *extēnsive*, *prēssure*.

For exceptions in Greek and Lat. words, see above, *e*.

After *c* and *g* it serves, either with or without a previous second consonant, after a long or a short vowel, although arising organically or by methathesis, to designate the dental sound of those gutturals: *piēce*, *siēge*; *prīnce*; *hēnce*, *scōnce*, *hīnge*, *bīlge*, *lodge*, *lōdge*, *bridge*; so too after *ng* and a long syllable: *chānge*. After *th* it becomes significant of the soft *th*: *brēath* — *brēathe*.

It stands in union with *u* after *q* and *g* in the French mode: *pique*, *antique*, *risque*, *casque*, *mosque*; *fatigue*, *plague*, *cátalogue*, *rogue*, *harángue*, *tongue*.

This mute *e* also remains mute, when preserved before consonants in the amplification of the stem through derivation or composition: *crime* — *crímeful*; *confine* — *confíneless*, *confinement*; *sole* — *sóleness*, *sólely*; *arráge* — *arrángement*; *lodge* — *lódgement*; *note* — *nótebook*. Exceptions are formed by *whóly*, *áwful*, and, if we reckon *ue* here; *dúly*, *trúly*, in which *e* falls out. Some also spell *judgment*, *abridgment*, *acknowledgment* instead of *judgement* &c. After gutturals, which have become dental it stands as a mute letter even before obscure vowels: *nótiçe* — *nótiçeable*; *lodge* — *lódgeable*; *cóurage* — *courágeous*.

Consonants in General.

The consonant is formed by the action of the moveable organs, the lips, the tongue and the throat, the breath which renders the formation of sound possible being modified either through the lips, on the teeth or in the throat. Thus we distinguish *lipsounds*, *toothsounds*, and *throatsounds* (Labials, Dentals, Gutturals).

If, in the production of the consonant, the mouth is completely closed and again opened at any definite place, the consonant is called

explosive, is **divided** or **divisible** in its production, and may therefore, under certain circumstances, in collision with others, or at the end of the syllable be shortened by its latter half. If, in the pronunciation of the consonant a mere approximation of the organs takes place, without an interruption of the vocal breath, the consonant is **fricative**, or is audible as friction, and therefore **uninterrupted**, or **continuous**. The **liquid** consonants, or **melting sounds**, *l* and *r*; *l* produced by the partial closure and the slight pressure of the lip of the tongue, and *r* produced by vibration, and the tremulous movement of the tongue or the palate (dental and guttural *r*), partake of both qualities. The **nasals**, *m* and *n*, belong according to the place of their origin, to the labial or to the dental letters, and are, in the mode of their production, at the same time explosive, but, a simultaneous opening of the channel of the nose (the nostrils) taking place, they become nasal. Inasmuch as they can be made to sound continuously they have been reckoned among the liquids. **Semivowels**, that is to say, sounds formed under the cooperation of the consonantal organs, while the voice, in commencing to form a vowel, does not set the glottis in decided vibration, are *w* and *y*.

A representation of the phonetic relations of consonants in modern English in the respects above stated, is contained in the following table:

	Nasals	Liquids	Interrupted or explosive		Uninterrupted or continuous		Semivocal
Lipsounds	<i>m</i>		hard <i>p</i>	soft <i>b</i>	hard <i>f, ph, gh</i>	soft <i>v</i>	<i>w (u) wh</i>
Teeth-sounds	<i>n</i>	<i>l r</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>d</i>	Lisping sounds <i>th th</i> Hissing sounds <i>s, c s, z</i> Sibilants <i>ch, sh, s, t, j, g, s, z</i>		
Throat-sounds	<i>ng</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>c, k, qu, ch</i>	<i>g, gh, gu</i>	<i>h</i>		<i>y (i)</i>

A compound of the throat and the toothsound is *x = cs* and *gs*; its *s* may therefore pass into the sibilant.

General Observations.

The representation of sounds by different consonants and combinations of consonants rests partly on the mixture of the Anglo-saxon and the French modes of representation, partly on the retention of sounds, justified etymologically, but whose pronunciation has changed. The representation of various sounds by the same sign springs partly from the same cause, but on the other hand, in part, from the becoming identical of vocal signs originally different.

1) **Lipsounds.** The introduction of the sound *r*, along side of *w*, the latter of which corresponds to the Anglosaxon *v* (*u*), is to be ascribed to the influence of the French. The combination *wh* is, properly, a composite sound. It is the inverse of the Anglosaxon *hw*, with the retention of the ancient succession of sounds, unless *w* is silent (*who* = *hū*). On the unwarranted *wh*, see below. *gh* as *f* is retained etymologically, although phonetically transformed.

2) Among **toothsounds** the initial dental and the final **guttural** *r*, either with or without other consonants are to be distinguished (right and her, hard). The hard and the soft *th*, two hisping-sounds corresponding to the Anglosaxon *p* and *ð* (at is were *th* and *dth*) although no longer strictly divided into the initial, the medial and the final, are both often expressed as in the later English by *th*, so in Old-English by *p* concurrently with *th*, as in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER *pis*, *per*, *pou*, *Bape*, *oper*, *wollep*, *bep*, *forp*. The *s* is divided into a hard and a soft hissing sound (*sister* and *his*). The *c* of the same sound before clear vowels (*certain*, *cancer*) is to be ascribed to the Romance influence. The Anglosaxon seems not to have known the sound *z*, which is also represented by *s* (*frozen*, *zeal*; *wisdom*, *bosom*) as it also rarely employs the sound *z* instead of *ð*. Moreover *z* in the middle of Gothic words seems to have been soft, as *s* seems everywhere to have been hard. The sibilant *ch* is frequently met with in non-Germanic as well as in Anglosaxon words. As distinguished from *sh*, *t* is prefixed to the former, except in modern French words. *s* and *t* are equivalent to the sibilant *sh* in those cases where the sound of *y* hardened into a consonant is developed out of *i* or *e* (also *ü* = *iü*) and blends with it (*mānsion* = *man-shon*, *nāuseous* = *naush'ous*, *nation* = *nāshon*, *sūre* = *shūre*, *cēnsure* = *cēnshur*). To these hard sibilants are opposed the soft *j*, *g* (under French influence) and then *s*, *z*, in which *y* developed out of clear vowels unites with the dental. The dental *d* is placed phonetically before the sibilants *j* and *g*. The Anglosaxon sound *j*, which we find interchanging with *g*, *ge* and *ige*, answers only to the English *y*. In the case specified English orthoepists denote the sound of *s* and *z* by *zh*, as opposed to *sh* *vision* = *vizhon*, *pleasure* = *pleazhur*, *razure* = *rāzhur*). In Old-English the sound *sh* is often found represented by *sch*, also by *ssh*.

3) The nasal *ng* cited among the **throat-sounds** is the sound in which *n* is affected by a guttural. *n* experiences a similar affection before gutturals in general (*vanquish*, *anxious*). See more particularly below. The Anglosaxon *c*-sound for which the *k*, frequent in Gothic and Anglosaxon was seldom substituted, is now often represented by *k*, and the guttural *ch*, appearing chiefly in non-Germanic words, shares the same sound, to which also the Latin romance *gn* (*conquer*) partly corresponds, being, on the other hand, equivalent to the Anglosaxon *cr* (*quick*). To this hard guttural is opposed the soft *g*, which at times becomes known as such by a suffixed *h* or *u* (*gh*, *gu*), while *gu* (analogous to *qu* = *cr*) replaces the combination of *gr* (distinguish). The *h* is hardly ever preserved phonetically save at the commencement of Germanic and non-Germanic words, although it seems in Anglosaxon to have sounded strongest

and to have been partly equivalent to the Highdutch *ch*, precisely where in English it has completely disappeared. The Old-English often employed for *g* and *y* the Anglosaxon *ȝ*, which, strange to say, is often rendered in modern copies by *z*.

Among the English consonants *j* can never end a syllable; *v*, as well as the dental *c* and *g* appear only with a following mute *e*, *g* with *ue* at the end of a syllable.

The pronunciation of consonants in detail.

1) The nasal and the liquid sounds *m*, *n*, *l*, *r*.

m at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of a syllable, sounds like the Highdutch *m*: man, márry, compláint, ambition, immórtal, imitate, claim, form.

The words formerly spelt *compt*, *accómp*t, *comptról*, *comptróller* are at present spelt *count*, *accóunt*, *contróll*, *contróller*, and the former, when they occur, pronounced like the latter. The first two answer to the Latin: *computare*, Old-French *conter*, *cunter*, in modern French dissimilated into *compter* and *conter* (*m* becomes *n* before the dental). The latter come from the French *contrôle* (= *contre-rôle* Lat. *rotulus*).

The final *m* appears doubled in *mumm*, wherein only one *m* sounds.

n has in general the sound of the Highdutch *n*: nail, enfórcé, enjóy, éngine, énmity, hen, hand, finch, discern. In *Banf* and *Pontefract* *n* is pronounced like *m* (= *bamf*, *pomfret*) as the latter is also sometimes written.

Before gutturals *n* assumes in general the sound of the Greek *γ* or the Gothic *g* before a guttural (compare Gothic *briggan*, *paghjan*), which we are wont to represent by *ng* and which we denote by *n**): úncle, ín-k, món'key, bán'quet, ánguish, cónger.

In these cases *n* is on the one hand tinged with a guttural, but on the other hand also the guttural becomes audible at the end or the beginning of a subsequent syllable; compare: ín-k, cón-ger, En-gland.

To this, however, exceptions are found. In syllables ending in *ng* the guttural *n* is alone heard, without the aftersound *g*: sín(g), lón(g), bóilín(g), although dialectically, for example, in the North-East of England *g* is sounded after it (kín-g, lon-g). In derivatives from such stems also *n* alone continues audible: sín(g)ín(g), sín(g)er, wín(g)y, youn(g)ster. Yet here again the comparatives and superlatives from *long*, *strong*, *young* (lón-ger, yóun-gest) form an exception, an anomaly blamed by some orthoepists.

In words whose stem syllable ends in *ing*, the convenience of pronunciation often completely extirpates the guttural tinge of the derivative syllable, so that we hear *singin*, *bringin* spoken, a

*) In comparative Grammar this sound is usually denoted by *n* with a point over it; for want of this character we have been forced to select *n*.

natural bias to dissimilation of syllables, which is nevertheless justly blamed.

In composition a syllable ending in *n* undergoes before a guttural no guttural tinge (compare *vanguard*; otherwise, where the composition no longer comes into consciousness: *Lincoln* = *Lindum colonia*, pronounced *Lin-kun*). Yet in prefixes ending in *n* the exception takes place that they assume the sound *n̄* under the principal accent: *cónquer*, *cónquest*, *cóngress*, *cóngruent*, *ínchoate*, *ínquinate*: *con* even under the subordinate accent: *cóncoagulate*; but in regard to the prefix *in* there is no consistency or agreement *income*, *increase*, *íncreate*, *ínclavated*, *ínquest* being denoted as the usual pronunciation. In the unaccented syllable every guttural tinge is removed: *congrúity*, *ínclément*, *únquiet*. This happens even in other unaccented syllables, as in *augúst*.

Final *n* is seldom doubled. (Compare *inn*) where it sounds like a single *n*.

l has the sound of the Highdutch *l*: *lamb*, *plúral*, *blue*, *slang*, *climb*, *soil*, *fault*, *bulk*. It sounds after a consonant before a mute *e*, as in *péople*, *táble*, *trifle*; *shuttle*; see above. A final double *l*, which is usual at the end of monosyllabic words, is not to be distinguished from a simple *l*: *kill*, *full*, *all*; therefore in compound words the *ll* of the stem becomes a final single *l* without any sacrifice of sound: *fulfil*, *wilful*, *withál*, *hándful*. *ll* also, in immediate contact with a subsequent consonant, (also with a mute *e* between) sounds as a single *l*: *kill'd*; as *ll* only sounds as a single *l* before a clear vowel hardened into *y*: *búllion* (= *boolyon*). Even a strongly aspirated initial double *ll* is like the single *l*: *Llandáff*, *Llanélly*. (The Celtic sound is represented in English by *ll* or *llh*). Moreover *ll* in the middle of words, before vowels sounds at once as the final sound of the prior and as the initial sound of the subsequent syllable: *allý*, *bíllow*, *fóllow*.

l is exceptionally pronounced like *r*, this often arises out of an *l*: in *cólonel* (pronounced *cúrnél*) in *Spencer* also *coronel* (comp. Span. *coronel*, French *colonel*), and in *Cashalton* (pronounced *cāshor'tn*).

r is either dental or guttural (see above):

- a) dental at the commencement: *run*, *rose*; also in combination with other consonants: *pride*, *bride*, *fresh*, *try*, *draw*, *spread*, *stride*, *crown*, *grow*. When in the middle of a word *r* begins a syllable after a short vowel. it becomes by attraction at the same time the final sound of the previous syllable, and therefore apparently doubles itself, so that *e* commences with a guttural sound and sounds on with the succeeding syllable as a dental: *pěril* (like *per-ril*), *förest*, *bāron*. Even after long vowels, when it begins the following syllable, it has a guttural influence on that vowel: *vários*, *sérious*, *fúry*.
- b) guttural at the end of a syllable even with subsequent consonants: *fir*, *her*, *star*, *cur*, *múrmur*; *hear*, *air*, *door*; *cóbler*, *cóllar*, *árbor*; *herb*, *earth*, *pearl*, *lord*, *hurt*, *worm*,

work, turf. This is also naturally the case where *r* is followed by a mute *e*: fire, here, ware, shore, pure; jointure. At the end, with another preceding consonant, it produces, as it were, a metathesis of the *re* and has the guttural sound: théâtre, massacre, sépulchre, = théâtre, or -tur &c. The same metathesis appears in *iren* = *iurn*, *âpron* = *âpurn*, in common life also in children, hundred and the like.

Uneducated persons let the *r* entirely disappear in words like hard, lord. The broad guttural pronunciation of the *r*, called burr in the throat, is peculiar to the northern dialects.

Double *r* in the middle of a word places the guttural and the dental *r* beside each other, the former, however, essentially softened, unless it comes from a stem ending in *r*, as in stárry of star, on which account the former does not essentially affect the vowel; at the end, where it is equivalent to a single guttural *r*, it is only used exceptionally: err, serr (= serry), purr.

2) The Lipsounds *p*, *b*, *f*, (*ph*, *gh*), *v*, *w*, (*wh*).

p sounds in general like the Highdutch *p*: pítý, pebble, pá-gan, pound, pure, play, prince, up, damp, slept.

In common life *p* is assimilated to a subsequent *b*, in cúpbord; in raspberry (pronounced rasberry) we may regard *p* as completely rejected on account of the collision of three consonants. Thus too it is assimilated to the succeeding *ph* in: Sáppho, sápphic, sápphire, pronounced Sáffo. The softening of the *p* into *b* occurs in póther, which, according to this corrupted pronunciation is also spelt bóther.

b has the sound common to the Germanic tongues at all parts of the word: báby, blow, broad, bob, gobble, barb.

Double *b* at the end is only exceptional: in ebb.

f has the sound of the Highdutch *f*: fáncy, fly, friend, múf-fin, chiefly, áfter, thief, wife, calf, craft.

Double *f* at the end of polysyllabic words after a short vowel is usual with some trifling exceptions, even polysyllables have *ff*: off, cliff, staff, plaíntiff, caítiff, wherein *ff* sounds like a single *f*.

In the unique particle of, *f* sounds like *r*, but not in composition, as thereóf, whereóf &c.

The sound of *f* is also represented by *ph*, corresponding to the Greek *φ*, which has passed through the Latin and the Romance. The Anglosaxon seldom has *ph* (philosoph, pharisee with farisee). In Old-English *f* and *ph* alliterate: *F*are wel *P*hippe and Faunteltee (PIERS PLOUGHM.p. 205). In Modern-English they are likewise interchanged; gulph and gulf, Guelphs and Guelfs: philósopher, phósphor, phrase, phlegm.

v appears softened into *v* in Stéphen, Old-French Estevenes, Hollandish Steven, Old-English Steuene (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), also sec. XVI Steuen (JACK JUGLER c. 1562.) and in néphew, Old-English newew, the French neveu alongside of the Anglosax. nāfa; some orthoepists demand here the pronunciation of *f* as *f*. Thus in writing also nāphew and nāvew (Lat. napus, French navet) stand alongside of each other.

1. The Word according to its elements. Pronunciation of Conson. &c. 55

Before *th* *ph* transform itself into the sound *p* (unless it is altogether silent, see below): náphtha, diphthong, ophthálmic. Moderns demand here in diphthong and others the pronunciation dif, so inconvenient before the lisping sound *th*.

gh also sometimes represents the *f*-sound, yet only after *au* and *ou* and in a short syllable in the words draugh (also spelt draff) draught (also draft) laugh, laughter; = chough (pronounced chüf) clough (pronounced cluf), Brough (pronounced brüf), cough (pronounced cöf), enough (enuf), rough (pronounced rüf), slough (pronounced sluf in the substantive "shakeskin"), tough (pronounced tüf), trough (pronounced tröf), chincough (pronounced chincöf), Loughborough (pronounced luf-bür-ö). Usually thus even in the seventeenth century. Instead of hiccough (= hiccöf) hiccup is also written.

v always has the sound of the Highdutch *w* or the French *v*: vain, váley, vélvet, love.

w as a consonant commences (as distinguished from the Highdutch *w*) almost like a vowel, and at the same time leans like a consonant, on the subsequent vowel, so that it may be compared in some measure with the combination *uw*. It is never a final consonant sound, and only tolerates dentals (*t, d, s*) as audible consonants before it: wait, wáyard, twice, dwell, swállow (compare *qu = cw*).

In combination with *h* as *wh*, the *h* before it sounds (unless it is wholly silent) = *hw* Anglosaxon *hw*: which, whet, why,

3. The toothsounds *t, d, th, s, c, z, ch, sh, j, g*.

t has primarily and in general

- a) the sound of the Highdutch *t*, when at the beginning of a word it tolerates only *r* and *w* after it, *m* only in Greek words: tmé-sis; term, take, tráitress, twist, tempt, tent, hilt, art, rapt, drift, mast, text, act, settle; with silent letters before it: debt, fraught.

Its reduplication at the end is rare: butt, smitt.

- b) but it often experiences, like other dentals, an influence through an unaccented vowel following it, *i, e* (and the *i* preceding in *ü*) when this is followed by another vowel: *ie, ia, io* and *u* (= *iu*), *ea, eo*. As in such combinations the *i*-sound has a decided bias to harden into a semivowel, so the dental has the tendency to combine with it, by which a hissing sound, either hard or soft, may arise. To retain the *i* in such cases as a *y* consonant, as is prescribed by many orthoepists of the more solemn style, offends, in many cases at least, against an universal usage.

It is moreover to be remarked that, before Germanic terminations, such as the comparative *-er*, *t* is maintained pure: migh-tier, pítiest, and only Romance terminations are considered.

- a) *t-i* appears as a hard sibilant tsch:

- α) in conversational language when *s* or *x* precedes the *t*: chris-tian, fústian, celéstial, quéstion, míxtion; when,

however, the *t* is wont to be attracted by the last syllable: pronounced christ-sh'an, celést-sh'al, kwest-shŭn, míxt-shŭn. The more solemn pronunciation is declared to be celést-yäl and so forth, particularly with the termination *ian*.

f) further, where *t-i* arises from the combination of *t* with the terminations *eous*, *une*, *ure*, *ual*: righteous, fórtune, créature, spiritual, pronounced ri-ch'us, fórt-shoon, créet-sh'oor, spirit-sh'ooal; in the termination *uous* this is rare. The *t* is moreover here, as above, attracted after a short vowel or a close syllable. Here, too, the maintenance of *iü* or *yu* passes for the more solemn pronunciation.

b) as a soft sibilant, and thus usually in the Romance derivative terminations, *ient*, *ia*, *ial*, *iate*, *ion*, *ious* by universal agreement: pátient, militía, pártial, sátiáte, méntion, cáutious, pronounced pásh'ent, mélish'ä, pásh'al &c.

In the pronunciation of Latin words like *ratio*, the *i* is still suffered to sound separately: rä-shëö, as well as in words in *iate* after a long syllable; sátiáte pronounced säshëäte.

In the cases cited the sibilant of course remains even after the amplification of the words by other derivative terminations, as in pártiälity, rátiöнал &c. If, however, the *i* is accented, the fusion ceases: satíety, and *t* sounds like *t*.

In words in *-ier* the more solemn style does not permit the transformation of *ti* into *sh*: cóurtier (cóurt-yer).

d corresponds

a) with its soft sound, in general to the Highdutch initial *d*, and, like *t*, only tolerates *r* and *w* after it at the beginning of a word: din, do, draw, dwell, bándage, kíndred, kínd, bold, drúnkard, léarned, drudge.

b) it hardens into *t* in the verbal inflection *ed*, when *e* is silent, and it is preceded by the hard consonants *p*, *k*, *f*, *gh* (= *f*), the sharp hissing sounds *s*, *c* and *x* (= *es*) or the sibilants *ch*, *sh*: dripped, ráked, rácked, stúffed, cóughed, chásed, pás-sed, pláced, perpléxed, snátched, láshed. The physiological reason of this pronunciation has produced the phonetic style of spelling, frequent in Old-English, common in modern English, yet in modern times of very confined use, such as whipt, héapt, askt, crost, fixt, punisht, watcht.

c) In the pronunciation of common life *d*, like *t*, with a subsequent unaccented *i*, *e* (also in *u* as *iü*) hardened into a semivowel, enters into a combination before a second vowel, which as a soft sibilant, is denoted by *j* (= *dg*). Walker prescribes this usage as the rule; others admit it only in the most frequent words, whereas they pretend to preserve to others the semi-consonant *y*: sóldier (söl-jer), insídious, hídeous (hid'-zh'us), grándeur, árduous, vérdure &c.; even in éducate we hear *du* sometimes as *dzh*. A pure *d* with a subsequent feebly hardened *i* (*y*) seems almost always to pass for the more correct pronunciation. The transformation of an initial *d*, before accented vowel

generally, into *j* is provincial, as in Warwickshire: duke, dead, deal &c. (= juke, jed &c.)

th, a lisping-sound, wanting in Highdutch, produced by a breathing forced between the tongue and the teeth, after the tongue has been laid between the rows of teeth, appears, when the breath is slightly vocalized, as a hard, when not, as a soft *th*. Even the Gothic *p* may pass for an aspirated *d*: the Anglosaxon *p* and *ð* are the origins of their double tinge.

a) the hard *th* therefore corresponds to the Anglosaxon *p*, Islandic *p* and Modern-Greek *π*

c) At the beginning of words thick, thank, théâtre, throat, thwart.

Except the personal pronoun of the second person and the demonstrative pronouns, together with the forms and particles derived therefrom, in which *th* is always soft: thou, thee, thine, thy, the, this, that, they, them, these, those, their, then, than, though, thus, there, thither.

In composition the hard sound remains to *th*: athirst, athwart, bethump, bethrall &c.

β) At the end: filth, sheath, death, mouth, zénith. In eighth, instead of eightth the *t* has a twofold function, as *t* and as an element of the sound *th*.

Except those ending with the soft *th*: benèath, undernèath, booth and smooth adjective and verb, the particles with also in all its compounds, and verbs which sound like a noun (for dissimilation), as mouth, wreath and the like, although these are frequently spelt with a mute *e*.

Before an inflectional *s*, *th* is softened: paths, mouths, oaths.

γ) in the middle of words originally Greek and Latin: Athens, catholic, orthodox, author, likewise in Lutheran; in words originally Anglosaxon before and after a consonant: southly, filthy.

Except words originally Anglosaxon in which *th* is preceded by *r*. In this case *th* is soft: fārthing, fārther, fārthest, wórthy c. der., nórthern, búrthen (also búrden), fúrther, múrther (commonly murder). Also in brèthren the soft pronunciation of brother is retained, as *-ren* is also metathetically pronounced like *ern*.

b) The soft *th*, equal to the Anglosaxon *p* and the Modern-Greek *θ* at the beginning of a word, occurs at the beginning and in the middle of words only exceptionally (see above). But it is always found in the middle of words not originally Greek or Latin between vowels: híther, thither, éither, néither, togéther, féather, fáther, móther, bróther, sóuthern.

In bróthel it sounds hard.

c) It sounds as a simple *t* in Thámes, Thómas, thýme; also with *ph* at the beginning of a word, when *ph* is silent: phthisis (= tí-cis), phthisic (= tíz-zick), phthisicál &c.; also in the

middle between *s* and *ʌ*: Ísthmus, ásthma, also after a single *s*: Esther, Demóstheneš, likewise in Anthony.

t and *h* are moreover to be divided, as final and initial letters respectively, in compounds, as: Chátham (chát-ham), Wítham and others.

s represents a hard, or sharp, and a soft hissing sound, and becomes by means of the following vocalization a hard or soft hissing sound.

a) is a sharp hissing sound, like the French sharp *s* or *ç*:

α) at the beginning of all words: sea, sýstem, so, súmer, smart, snail, slash, spade, sway, stab, skim, scar, school, squab, split, sprig, struggle, scratch.

Except *sûre*, *súgar*, wherein *s* sounds like *sh* (see below). Also in the compounding of notional words an initial *s* retains its sharp sound: *séaside*, *pólysýllable*, *lóvesong*, *midsummer*, *góspel* (= god-spel), *quicksilver*. Therefore also in Thomson (-son = son), as well as in those compounded of some = Highdutch *sam*.

In composition whith particles ending in vowels or consonants the subsequent initial *s* is in general sharp: *asúnder*, *besiege*, *fóresight*, *cosécant*, *párasite*, *prósecute*, *inside*, *unséen*, *obséss*.

In *cousin*, the composition of which (*consobrinus*), is no longer perceived, the rule for the middle of a word is observed.

There is uncertainty with some particles: after *ab* *s* is soft in *absolve* c. der., yet not in *absolute* c. der. and *absolútion*; after *ob* in *observe* c. der.

This is particularly the case after *re*, *pre* and *de*, after which an initial *s* with a vowel following, according to the rule for the middle of a word, is soft. Yet here logical considerations have been suffered to prevail in part.

After *re* *s* is sharp especially when it adds the meaning "again" to the stem, when the consciousness of particle and stem is maintained clear; hence sharp in: *reséat*, *reséize*, *reséll*, *resénd*, *reséttle*, *resil*, *resalûte*, *résurprise*, *résurvéy* &c. On the other hand soft in: *resíst*, *résidue*, *reside*, *resémble*, *resènt* (= to take ill), *resolve*, *resound* (= to echo), *résúlt*, *resúme* &c.

The sharp or the soft *s* corresponds therefore to notional differences, as in *resóund* (to sound again) and *resound* (= to echo); *resígn* (= to sign again) und *resign* (= to give up).

Nevertheless the sharp *s* has been preserved, where the meaning "again" is not present: *reséarch* (French *recherche* and *rechercher* = to inquire, inquiry), *résipiscence*, *resóurce*, *resúpinate*. On the other hand the soft *s* is to be met with where that meaning is near, in *résurrectiön*.

After *pre* the sharp *s* appears when the former expresses decidedly the meaning "before": *presignify*, *présuppöse*, *présurmise*, *présage* and to *presage*, *présentiment*,

présensâtion, on the other hand *preside*, *preserve*, *presume*, *présent*, *présence* with the soft *s*.

After *de* the initial *s* is sharp, when a decidedly negative meaning belongs to it: *desiderate* to lack, to miss; *desiccate* dry up; *désinent* extreme, ceasing, ending; *desipient* silly, *desist* leave off, *désecrate* profane, *desûme* borrow, *désuétude* disuse, *désultory* unsteady; *desûlphurate* take out the brimstone, *désynônimize*.

Yet a sharp *s* is found in *desidiose*, properly, enduring, sluggish, and *désudâtion*, properly, sweating away, strong sweat. *désignate* c. der. and *design* c. der. with a sharp *s* are striking, although usage fluctuates with *design*.

The rest of the compounds with *de* have the soft *s*, as *desire*, *deserve* &c.

- 3) *s* (and the frequent *ss*) are sharp in general at the end of a word, without a mute *e* after it, unless this *s* arises from inflection: this, yes, us (not the inflectional -s, compare Anglo-sax. dative and accus. us, Gothic unsis, uns), thus, *Lewis*, *Páris*, *metrópolis*, *gas*, *bias*, *pious*.

In further formation or composition this *s* commonly follows the laws of the *s* in the middle of a word, therefore is soft between vowels and before certain consonants (see below): cf. *gas* and *gasómeter*; similarly also a sharp *s* before *e*: *gósling* (from *goose*), *húsbând* (from *house*).

On the other hand, in the prefix *mis*, as in *trans* the *s* always remains sharp (unless transformed into the sibilant by subsequent vowels, whereas *dis* in various regards has the sharp or the soft *s*. Its *s* is sharp, when the subordinate accent lies upon *dis*: *disobéy*, *disagrée*; when the following syllable begins with a hard consonant: *discipline*, *dispáitch*, *disfigure*, *distúrb*, *discrówn*, *dishábit*; before the *u* diphthong: *disúse*, *disúniôn*, *s* before the accented syllable beginning with a vowel is soft: *diséase*, *disórder*; also with a mute *h*: *dishónest*; or with a soft consonant: *dismántlé*, *dislike*, *disróot*, *disdáin*, *disguise* &c. In *discérn* c. der. (pronounced *dizzérn*) and *dissolve* c. der. *s* is likewise soft. In *dismál* is *dis* not the same prefix.

Except:

- a) as (comp. *whereas*) and *was*. [In *has* and *is* an inflectional letter appears, as in *his*, and analogously *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*.]
 - b) words in *s* from the ancient tongues, and not preceded by a mute *e*: *spécies*, *séries*, *cáries*, *Móses*, *Diógenes*.
 - c) words in *s*, before which stands a mute *e* after a soft consonant: *besides*, *whíles*, *Jámes*, *Jónes*, *Chárlés*, *Réeves*.
 - d) words in *s*, immediately preceded by a soft consonant: *lens*, *Símmons*, *Tibbs*, *needs*, *tówards*.
- γ) *s* is sharp in the middle of a word when it doubles itself, as

well as when it encounters another consonant. This is good also for the *s* sounding with another consonant before a mute *e*: pressing, assassinate; hóspital, sister, ránsom, pársón, tipsy; pulse, verse, nurse.

Except:

a) among words with *ss*: posséss, scissórs, hussár, and hússy, mísseldíne (comp. *c*) and the compound dessért (compare above *dis*), wherein *ss* is soft; and those wherein *ss* or *s* before vowels passes into a sibilant.

b) before and after *m*, *s* is soft: whimsey, crímson, dám-sel; — cosmétic, cósmical, prím, críticism.

c) before *l*, *r*, *b*, *d*, *s* is soft after a vowel: grísly, Íslamism, Íslington, múslin, Ísraelite, Lísbon, Lésbia, Búsby, wísdom, Désdemóna.

Also in mistletoe, wherein *t* is cast out in pronunciation, *s* is so in mísseldíne (of like meaning) compare Old Norse mistiltein; on the other hand not in the like rejection of the *t* in nestle, whistle, and others

d) after *m*, *n*, *l*, *r*, in an accented syllable before *y* and *ey* *s* is soft: clúmsy, quínsy, pálsy, Jérsey, also in cléanse.

b) *s* is soft, like an initial Highdutch *s*:

a) in general in the middle of words between vowels, to which case also belongs the final *s* before a mute vowel: riser, séason, éasy, násal, bósom, wise, rise.

This bias is in part common to Germanic and Romance tongues; even in Gothic *s* between vowels readily passes into *z* (= *s*), like the same sound in French.

Exceptions are, of course, those words in which *s* before vowels passes into a sibilant. Besides

a) the adjectives in *s-ive* and *s-ory*, the abstract substantives in *sis*, *sy*, and *os-ity*, in which *s* is sharp: decisive, conclusíve; derísory, delúsory; crisis, thésis, básis; póesy, éxtasy, léprosy; curiósity, animósity. This also takes place of course in further derivatives from adjectives: derísively, derísiveness. It is also sharp in árgosy ship of burden, but not in pósy, which is deemed to be abbreviated from póesy.

b) Further, some other substantives with an *s* in the middle are with drawn from the rule, and have a sharp *s*: básin, máson, gárrison, capárisón, sáusage, palisáde, crusáde, abéissance and obéissance; and words originally Greek, mostly compounds: chrýsalis, chrýsolite, philósophy (-phise, opher, but not philosophícal); those with Greek prepositions: épisode, prósody, prósopopœia, prósopolépsy, dý-sentery &c.

c) likewise adjectives ending in *se*: concise, obése, base, moróse, loose, profúse; only wise has a soft *s*.

Verbs sounding like adjectives follow the main rule, as *close*, *diffuse* &c. Yet the sharp *s* is retained in: *loose* (also *loosen*), *debase*.

Those words in *ly* and *ness*, derived from adjectives retain their primitive *s*: *morosely*, *baseness*.

- d) a series of **substantives** in *se* has likewise the sharp *s*: *ánise*, *prómise*, *prémise(s)*, *mórtise*, *práctise*; — *lease*, *re-lease*, *decease*, *crease*, *decrease*, *increase*, *grease*; — *base*, *chase* (french *chasse* and *chasser*), *purchase*, *case* (French *cas* and *caisse*); — *dose*, *purpose*; — *use*, *abuse*, *refuse*, *excuse*, *recluse*, *hypotenuse*; *goose* (also in pl. *geese*), *cruise*; — *rise* (= act of rising &c.), *paradise*; — *louse*, *mouse*, *house* (pl. *houses*), *grouse*, *chouse*, *souse*; — *porpoise*, *tortoise*.

Many of these substantives are distinguished from verbs of the same spelling by that the latter receive a soft *s*, like the words: *grease*, *use*, *refuse*, *abuse*, *excuse*, *rise*, *promise*. Yet other words have the same form with the sharp *s* as *promise*, *practise*, *lease*, *release*, *crease*, *decrease*, *increase*, *decease* like the simple *cease*, *purchase* (also *enchase* = *enchâsser*), *dose*, *purpose*, *chouse*, *souse* to *pickle*.

Other verbs with a sharp *s* are *erase* and *souse* (to throw down).

- e) In general also at the end where *s* arises through inflection of the noun or of the verb, unless it is preceded, either immediately or separated by a mute *e*, by a hard consonant: in **declination** *seas*, *widows*, *pens*, *pen's*, *pens'*, *ánals*, *waters*, *bills*, *fields*, *birds*, *rags*, *hares*, *babes*, *wives*, *syllables*; and **conjugation** *says*, *does*, *swims*, *sounds*, *neighs* &c.

In **composition**, also, where *s* constitutes the connecting consonant, this is treated as an inflectional letter: *hog'shead*, *tradesfolk*, *kingsstone*.

Of course *s* also remains soft, where a hissing sound or a sibilant precedes *e* before *s*: in **declination** *ásse's*, *áshes*, *pláces*, *bóxes*, *bénches*; and **conjugation** *kisses*, *prizes*, *despáches*.

Except, therefore, forms like: *týrants*, *cáps*, *cliffs*, *óaks*, *óptics*, *months* &c., *pípes*, *gátes*; — *helps*, *barks* &c., *debátes*, *mákes* &c.

- c) But the *s* also receives a double sibilant, usually denoted by *sh* and *zh*.

- α) *s* receives the **hard sibilant** *sh*, before the combination of the unaccented *i*, *e*, with other following vowels, as well as before *u* (= *iú*), before *ion* and *u* (= *iú*); however, only when *s* is preceded by a second *s* or by another consonant. The vowel or semivowel sound often till remains to the *i*-sound: *Asian* (*áshyan*), *ásiatic* (*ásheätic*), *pérsian* (*pérsh'an*), *náusea* (*náushea*), *náuseous* (*naush'üs*); *mission* (*míshün*), *pássion*,

mánsion (mánshŭn), emúlsion, sénsual, (sénshooal), sénsuuous, préssure (presh'oor), cénsure.

At the beginning of the unaccented syllable *s* = *sh* only in sure, súgar. See above.

- β) the soft sibilant *zh* (*j*, *dj*) before the termination *ion* and *u*, if the syllable previous to *s* ends in a vowel: *visión* (vizhŭn), *cohésion*, *evásion*, *úsury* (úzh'oory), *úsurer* (may usúrious = uzúrious), *úsual*, *méasure*, *pléasure*, *tréasure*.

c has, as a dental letter:

- a) the sound of the sharp *s*, analogous to the French, before the light vowels *i*, *y*, *e* (*æ*, *α*), also only at the beginning of a word or syllable, and at the end before a mute *e*: *cívil*, *cýmbal*, *cýpress*, *Cæsar*, *cétre*, *mércy*, *face*; likewise before a rejected *e*, if this is indicated by a mark of elision: *plac'd*. This sound also belongs to *sc* in a similar position: *science*, *prescind*, *scéne* (except in *sceptic* *c. der.*, *scirrhus*, where *sc* = *sk*).

By way of exception *c* sounds soft, like *z* (*s*) and *sc* like *zz* in: *suffice*, *sácrifice* (as a verb, on the other hand sharp in the substantive *sacrifice*) and *discérn*.

- b) the sibilant *sh*, in combination with an unaccented *i*, *e*, with a following vowel: *effícient*, *áncient*, *sócial*, *spácious*, *Phócion*, *ócean*, *crustáceous*. Where no derivational form is perceived in the termination, the original double sound is nevertheless preserved, as in *hálcyon*.

In these cases too *sc* is equal to *c*: *cóncscience*, *cóncscious* (where an unaccented stem appears as a termination).

Except a few Italian words, wherein *c* sounds like *ch*: *violon-céllo*, *vermicélli*.

In pronúnciátion we also hear *cía* pronounced like *cea*, to avoid the recurrence of the sibilant.

z, rare, and mostly in foreign words, at the beginning, and at the end, usually with a mute *e*.

- a) has in general the sound of the soft *s*: *zeal*, *zéphy*, *zódiac*; *lázy*, *frózen*; *fréeze*; also the final double *z*: *fizz*, *frizz*, *whizz*, *buzz*, *fuzz*.

After a hard final consonant it hardens into a sharp *s*: *fitz*, *Mentz*, *Metz* = *fits*, *ments*, *metz* or *mäs*. In *mézzo* *zz* is considered equivalent to *ts* or *tz*.

- b) the soft sibilant *zh* (*j*) in combination with the *i*-sound of the terminations *-ter* and *-ure*: *glázier*, *grázier*, *ásure*, *rázure* (*glázh'er*, *ázh'oor*).

The word *vízier* is pronounced *vízyer*; we also find *vizir* and *viseir* written.

ch as sign of a sibilant occurs mostly in words originally Anglosaxon and French,

- a) wherein it usually represents the sound *tsh*; at the end, rarely at the beginning a *t* is wont to be placed before it after a short vowel, which indicates the reduplication of *ch* by its first con-

stituent, as with the really intentional reduplication of the sound its first constituent is alone repeated; the reduplication of the dental *g* as *dg* is in the same predicament: chin, chaff; reach, bench, church, wretch, crutch; — chief, chamber; arches, ostrich; scutcheon. This sound also tolerates *s* before it: eschew, escheat; but, as to *sch*, see below, *sh*, and guttural *ch*. These words belong to the Anglosaxon and Old-French: words from the ancient languages are rare and have perhaps come through the same channel. The prefix *arch*, *archi*, *arche*, Greek ἀρχι, Anglosax. arce, has *tsh* in the first form before consonants: archbishop, archduke; and before vowels: archenemy, archenuch &c., with the exception of archangel c. der. On the other hand *archi*, *arche* have always the *k*-sound: architect, archetype. Also in cherub, Rachel and stomacher (alongside of stomach = äk) *ch* = *tsh*.

- Here and there it fluctuates betwixt *tsh* and *k*: archives is mostly pronounced with *k*, by some with *tsh*; likewise elench. b) it sounds like *sh* in words which have been received in modern times from the French with their original sound, as chicane, chevalier, chagrin and chagreen, charlatan, champagne (pronounced päne), champägn, chamois, chaise, machine and many more.

sh serves to denote the sibilant *sh* in all parts of the word, tolerates only *r* after it at the commencement, and has at the end no resonant before it except *r*: ship, shut, shy, fashion, bush; riek, shrine, harsh.

Sometimes, as in Old-English, mostly however, in oriental or modern Germanic words, *sch* represents the same sound: schédule; hah, scheik, schorl &c., where, however, *sh* is preferred in writing.

In the encounter of a final *s* and an initial *h* no sibilant arises: sháp, mishéarten = mis-háp &c.

g serves, as a dental, to denote a soft sibilant, which may be denoted by a French *j* with a *d* preceding it (*dj* = *dzh*). As a result of its reduplication *d* is usually placed before it after a short vowel (see above). It stands at the beginning only before *i*, *y*, *e*; after *e* follows it at the end (on judgment instead of judgement, see above). At the beginning of a word the dental *g* belongs to arch, Latin and Greek stems; at the end *g*, especially when doubled *dge*, answers also to Germanic words, a single *ge* after consonants Romance and Germanic ones. A *g* in the middle between vowels Greek, Latin or Romance: giant, gem; Egypt, orgies; pledge, edge, lodge, judge, vigil, marriage, privilege; hinge, singe, also before an elided *e*: fring'd. Where in Latin words *g* is doubled, *gg* is written, but only pronounced singly, e *dzh*: suggest, exaggerate.

In gaol, also spelt jail, *g* sounds like *dzh*, in spite of the *a* before it.

j is always equivalent to the dental *g* (= *dzh*). Since the 17th century *j* has been written instead of *i*: jay, joy, just.

In hallelujah *j* sounds like *y*.

- 4) The throat-sounds **c, k, q, (qu), ch, g, (gh, gu), h, y** and the compound **x**.

c has its guttural sound, equal to the Highdutch *k*, where it begins the syllable with an *l* or *r* after it or before obscure vowels *a, o, u*: climb, cross, cable, coy, cúrious, scorn, scray, sclavónian; as well as where it ends the syllable either alone or after and before a consonant: músic, plástic, talc, act, ácme, acclaím, áccident.

sc before obscure vowels likewise sounds like *sk*. Upon *ck* see *k*.

In many words a barely perceptible *y*-sound is made to sound after the guttural *c*, precisely as with *k*, which orthoepists indicate by a mark of elision: *c'ard*, *k'ine*, *k'ite*, *k'ind*, *k'erchief*; likewise after the guttural *g*: for example: *g'uard*, *g'uide*, *g'uise*, *g'irl* and others.

k, of the same sound as the guttural *c*, has been compelled to serve as a substitute for the *c* which has passed into the hissing sound before light vowels, therefore stands at the beginning of a syllable chiefly before *i, y, e*, rarely, and mostly in foreign words before *a, o, u*, as well as before *l* and *r*. At the end of a syllable *k* appears after a long vowel or another consenant, otherwise after a short vowel in the combination *ck*, which is to be regarded as a reduplication of *c* or *k*, and like all double consonants, sounds single at the end of a syllable. This *ck* also stands in the middle of a syllable between short vowels after a short syllable: *kid* and *kyd*, *key*, *kind*, *sképtic* alongside of *scéptic*, *skirmish*; — *kántism*, *káli*, *kóran*, *kúmisse*; — *klick* alongside of *click*, *krémelin*; — *sleek*, *slink*, *remárk*, *brisk*, *attáck*, *clock*, *rankle*, *twinkle*, *knuckle*, *básket*; — *lákkey*, *attácker*.

In encountering *g*, *ck* assimilates itself to the *g*, as in *bláck-guard* (= *blággard*).

q appears as *k* only in combination with *u*, which, especially in the stem after an initial *q* is heard as a semiconsonant *w*: *queen*, *quick*, *quack*, *quádruped*, *quinquennial*; *bánquet*.

But **qu** has the simple *k*-sound, particularly in French and some other foreign words; seldom at the beginning of the word: *quátre*, *quadrille*; frequently at the end in combination with the mute *e* (*que*): *antique*, *opáque*, *oblique*, *burlésque*, *grotésque*, *cínque*; — *píque*, *critique*, *círque*, *rísque*, *cásque*, *mósque* (also spelt *mosk*); also in the middle of the words: *piquet*, *eti-quétte*, *dóquet* (also spelt *docket*), *coquet*; *hárlequin*, *pálan-quín*; *cónquer* (but not in *cónquest*), *exchéquer*, *lácquer*, *fáquir* (also *fákir*), *líquor*; *másqueráde*, *mosquito*, *roque-láure*; *piquánt*, *Iroquoís*.

ch, as a guttural, equal in pronunciation to *k*, rests upon non-Germanic throat-sounds, except *ache*, wherefor also *ake* is used. At the beginning of a syllable it may stand before all vowels, as well as after all at the end. Commencing along with *l* and *r* it is always guttural, in the combination *sch*, mostly equal to *sk* (*sey sh*): *chyle*, *Chérsonese*, *cháos*, *cháracter*, *báldachin*, *Buchánan*; *chló-*

rid, chrónicle, schème, school; — hémistich, lilach, loch, éunuch.

choir is pronounced and also spelt like quire.

g is guttural before obscure vowels *a, o, u*, before *l* and *r* and always at the end of a syllable, either alone or combined with *l* and *r*: gab, gain, gaunt, go, goat, good, gulf, glory, grind. — leg, crag, dog, eagle, shingle, eagre. Before light vowels *i, y, e* it stands, especially in Anglosaxon or other Germanic, also Celtic and Oriental words: gild, begin, geese, get; — Àrgyle, Elgin, Amager; — Géber, Gibeon; — also in the inverted *ger* instead of *gre*: tiger, Latin tigris, French tigre, conger, Latin congrus, French congre, and in the derivational syllable *-er* after an originally guttural *g*: singer &c.

This is rarely the case where *g* in Latin or Romance words stood before a light vowel: ginglymus, gibbous and others, see below.

For the nasal *ng* in thing, young see above p. 52.

Double *g* in the middle of a word, unless sprung from a Latin *gg*, is guttural: nóggin, rúgged, dágger, gíggle; and at the end in egg. While *g* in *gh* is silent at the beginning and at the end of a word, it often sounds in the middle, as in signal, malignant &c. see below. In Champignon, cognac and other words properly French it sounds as in French.

gu appears often instead of the simple guttural *g* (apart from the cases in which *gu* sounds like *gu*, as in Guelfs, guáiacum, guáva, guiniad, ánguish, lánguish, distinguish, extinguish, lánguid, lánguage). It commonly, as in French, ensures the guttural sound before light vowels, and often in French words: guide, guile, Guisborough, Guélders; at the end, as *gue*: fatigue. Yet it also occurs in words originally Germanic: guess, Old-English gessen; guild and tongue, seldom instead of the expected dental *g*: prorogue, compare French proroger. *u* is idle before obscure vowels, as in guarantée, guard, guardian c. der.

gh likewise sometimes represents this sound, always at the beginning: Ghibelline, ghost, Ghent, Ghauts, so also in the compound aghást. At the end it is a guttural *g* only in burgh c. der.; sometimes, on the other hand *gh* is hardened into *k*, in the substantives hough and shough. This sound likewise belongs to it in Celtic words: lough (Lough Neagh = lók-nē), Léighlin (= lēk-lin). See above *gh* p. 55.

h, when it appears by itself (not in combinations, like *ph, th, sh, ch, gh*) sounds only at the beginning of syllables (unless altogether silent), like the Highdutch *h*: here, hair, Hull. On its transposition in *wh* see *w* p. 55.

The aspiration almost disappears before *ew* and *u*, on account of the semivowel *i* (*y*) which therein sounds before *u*: hew, Hugh, húman, humidity, almost like *yū, yūman* &c. Yet the aspiration is not quite destroyed in careful pronunciation.

y as a consonant, answers to the sound of the Highdutch initial *j*: year, yesterday, yawn, York, youth. In the middle of a

syllable it is found in foreign words, as *báyard*, *báyonet*, where it is mostly treated as a consonant (j). Some quite destroy it and say *bā-ard*, *bā-o-net*.

In the context a slight sibilant can mingle with *y* after a word with a final dental, when that beginning with *y* is unaccented I'll meet you. so that here *zh*, as it were, sounds before *y*.

The compound sound *x* is expressed by the sign which was written in Anglosaxon for *hs*, *cs*, *sc* and *gs* = *sg*, and in Old-French often interchanged with *s* (*ss*).

a) It has the hard double sound *ks*.

α) at the end of the accented syllable (having the principal or subordinate accent) in which case the *s* may also commence the next syllable: *axe*, *wax*, *fix*, *áxle-tree*, *éxit*, *éxercise*, *éxcellent*, *éxhibítion*, *Aíx-la-Chapélle*, *óρθodóxy*. So too in *óρθodox* and such like Greek words.

Except the case mentioned under c).

β) in the syllable before the accent, if the accented one begins with a fresh consonant, (*h* excepted): *extént*, *expánsion*, *exchéquer*.

b) it sounds like *gs* before the accented syllable, in which a vowel or *h* follows the *x*: *exíst*, *exált*, *exért*, *exált*, *anxíety*, *auxíliary*, *luxúriant*, *exhibit*, *exháust*.

But words derived from such with a hard *x* (*ks*) retain **exceptionally**, even in this case their hard sound: *fixátion* from *fix*, *vexátion*, *vexátious* from *vex*, *luxátion* and *lúxate* from *lux*. This is also the case in *doxólogy*.

In *exemplary*, as belonging to *exémplar*, *x*, even under the accent, remains = *gs*.

c) it sounds like *ksh*, analogously to the single *s*, tinged, before an unaccented *i*, with the following vowel and *u* (= *iu*): *ánxious*, *fléxion*, *fléxure*, *lúxury*; yet many give to *x* in unfrequent derivational terminations its *ks*-sound, as in *áxiom*, even in *lúxury*.

d) at the beginning of a word it sounds like the English *z* and mostly occurs in words originally Greek: *xíphias*, *xístos*, *Xénophon*, *xébec*.

Silence of Consonants.

The silence of consonants, retained in writing, rests partly upon the physiological difficulty or unaccustomedness of pronouncing them together, in which the rejection of a third between two others is particularly frequent. Much of this belongs, however, to the glibness or carelessness of conversation, which gradually becomes law. Old-English, with more consistency, entirely rejected the unspoken consonants. That consonants no longer sounded were still heard in the fourteenth century, prove, amongst others, alliterations in: *PIERS PLOUGHMAN*, as well as the following for *kn*: *Thanne kam ther a*

kyng Knyghthod hym ladde (p. 7 ed. WRIGHT); Yet I *courbed my knees* And cried. p. 28) for *wr*: And yet *wolde* he hem no *wo* That *wroughte* hym that *peyne* (p. 25), and at the silence of the *b* in *debt*, *doubt*; of the *l* in *calf*, *half*; of the *gh* in *neighbour* and *neigh* the pedantic schoolmaster still takes offence in Shakspeare (*Love's labour's lost* V, I), *gh* was in the seventeenth century still in great part audible by an aspiration which at the least was perceptible. However, even in Old-English, the silence of consonants is not always indicated in writing. Moreover, etymological considerations have here and there restored to Modern-English consonants cast out in Old-English.

1) The nasal and liquid sounds *m*, *n*, *l*, *r*.

m is silent before *m* at the beginning of a word: *mnemonic*; thus, even in Old-English, in which *mn* alliterates with *n*: And by-*nam* hym his *mnam* (*uvā*) (PIERS PLOUGH. p. 131); also between *r* and *l* in *Dunfermline* (= *dunferlin*).

n, although frequently cast off, is nevertheless, after *m* and *l*, where it is mute, often preserved in writing. It is mute after *m* at the end of a word: *limn*, *hymn*, *contemn*, *damn*, *sólemn*, *autumn*, *cóumn*; also where a syllable beginning with a consonant is added: *sólemnly*; and where the inflectional termination *ed* with a mute *e* is added: *limned*, *condemned*; but not in the adjective form, where *e* is audible: *dámned*. Generally, where a termination commencing with a vowel is added, *n* is the initial sound of the following syllable: *contémner*, *solémnity*, *dámnable*, *autúmnal*. Some grammarians except the termination *ing*, wherein *n* must remain mute, so as not to render the fundamental form unrecognizable by the inaudible sound of the stem. But this would also apply with equal justice to all other derivatives. In conversation we certainly hear *himing* instead of *hymning*, but also *condēmer* instead of *condemner*.

n is mute after *l* in *kiln*, *kíndry*, *bríckkiln*; hence *brick-keel* in southern dialects.

l is mute, in particular, before other consonants ending a word with it, especially *m*, *f* (*ve*) and *k*, and only after obscure vowels *a*, *o*, *ou*; after *a* before *m* in: *a/ms*, *pa/m*, Old-French *palme*, *paume*; *psa/m*, Old-French *salme*, *saume*; *ca/m*, *qua/m*; *calf*, *half*, *ca/ve*, *calves*, *halves*, *sa/ve* (according to other *sálve*), *chalk*, French *chaux*, *balk*, *walk*, *talk*, *Dundá/k*, *Fálkland*. Derivatives from these words commonly retain the rejection of the *l*, for example *pálmer*, *pálmy*, *quálmish*, *cálving*, *tá/kative* &c.; yet not for example in *pálmated*, *pálmiped*, *pálmistry*, *pálmiferous*, *pálmétto*. *l* is mute before *n* in *auln* (*áulnage*) Old-French *alne*, *aune*; *Ca/ne* (pronounced *káwn*) and *Alnwick* (pronounced *ánnik*); before *s* in *há/se*, *há/ser* also spelt *hawse*, *hawser*.

Except, among monosyllabic stems *tá/k* (*talk*, *talck*) and *válve*.

l after *a* is moreover mute in a few polysyllables: *á/mond*, Spanish *almendra*, French *amande*, *má/msev*, French *malvoisie*, *Má/mesbury*, *sá/lmon*, French *saumon*; *fá/lcon*, Old-French *falcon*,

faucou, má/kin also spelt maukin; in cháldron (= 36 bushels) some do not pronounce the *l*, we also find chaudron written. The Old-English had also auter, Modern-English áltar; sauter, Modern-English psáalter; fauhhon, Modern-English fálcion.

l after *o* is silent in fo/k and yo/k, in Hó/born and sólder also spelt soder, in common life also in sóldier; so in the proper names Línco/ln and Lángho/ln.

l after *ou* is mute in wou/d, shou/d, to which in modern writing cou/d has been assimilated (Old-Engl. coude). — Also in vault, Old-French volte, voute, vaute some suppress the *l*.

At the end of a word *l* is silent in the properly French word fusil. Dialectically *l* and *ll* are often thrown off; for Example in the Scotch a' = all, fu' = full, ca', caa, caw = call; so in Derbyshire aw = all &c.; also before *d*: bowd = bold, coud = cold.

It is also silent before several consonants in Ché/lnsford.

r, although often sounding feebly as a guttural *r*, is seldom quite silent.

The dental *r* is left out in glib utterance in the title Mrs = mistress (pronounced míssiz) else, it sounds in this word.

The guttural *r* is mute in Márlborough and wórsted (= yarn, not in worsted = defeated); also in róqelaúre many make the *r* inaudible, contrary to the more elegant usage.

2) The lipsounds *p*, *b*, *f*, (ph), *v*, *w*, *wh*.

p is not seldom silent, especially at the beginning of a word before *n*, *t*, *s*, *sh* mostly in Greek words: pneumatic, ptisan, Ptólemey, psalm, psáalter (Old-Engl. sauter; compare The sauter seith in the Psalme. (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 132), psychology, psóra &c., pshaw! (pronounced shaw).

It is also mute betwixt *m* and *t*: attémp, émpy, Northámp-ton, adémption; as well as before a final *t* in receípt; compare Old-Engl. decéipt (SPENSER) now decéit.

It is cast out betwixt *m* and *f* in Bámpfield, Bámpfyld; betwixt *m* and *b* it is cast out along with the assimilated *b* in Cámpbell (pronounced kámel); before *t* in Déptford.

b is mute at the beginning of a word in bdéllium (pronounced délyum).

It is silent before *t* in débt, débtor, súbtle c. der., but not in súbtile, although Old-Engl. sotile.

At the end of stems in *mb* and their derivatives *b* disappears: clim*b*, comb (also in cáta*comb* [pronounced cóme]), tom*b*, dum*b*, rhum*b*, bom*b* (pronounced būm); and so clim*b*able, clim*b*er, cōmbed, thūmb*ed* &c.; but not in bōmbard &c. Compare in Spencer frequently clim, lim, lam and the like.

We except accū*mb*, succū*mb* and rhomb together with rhóm-bus c. der.

in which *b* sounds decidedly.

The *b* is also silent in ámb*s*-ace (pronounced ánz-áce) which in Shakspeare is also spelt ámes-ace.

f is mute in common life, together with *l* in hálfpenny; it is certainly sometimes cast off in o' instead of of.

The *ph*, of like sound, remains, on the other hand mute at the beginning of Greek words: *phthisis*, *phthisic*, *phthisical*; and in the compounds: *ápophthegm* (pronounced *ápothem*), which is also spelt *apothegm*.

Upon *v* see the rejection of vowels and consonants. Otherwise its rejection is indicated in writing, as in *e'er*, *ne'er*, *o'er* and the like.

w is in many ways extinct in pronunciation.

At the beginning of a syllable it is silent before *r*: *wrinkle*, *wrap*, *wrong*, *wry*; of course in compounds, as *awrý*, *bewráy* &c.; before *h* in words in which *h* is followed by *o* (also by *oo*): *who*, *whose*, *whole*, *whore*, *whoop* (also spelt *hoop*).

Except *whop* c. der. and *whorl*. According to Walker and Perry it sounds in *whortleberry* (perhaps mutilated from the Anglosaxon *heorotberige* through the influence of the English *whurt* of the same meaning).

It is mute after *t* in *two* and its compounds; after *s* in *sword*.

In composition *w* is silent after an initial *s* in *ánswer*, Anglo-saxon and-svarjan, an-svarjan; analogously in common life in *bóatswain* (pronounced *bōs'n*) and *cóckswain* (pronounced *cōxen* = *cóck-sn*) from the Anglosaxon *svân* = *bubulcus*, *juvenis*. Thus also a single *w* is rejected after a consonant, when the single consonant after a short vowel seems reduplicated: *gúnwale*, commonly pronounced and even spelt *günnel*, and especially in names of places compounded of the Anglosaxon *víc* = *portus* and *víc* = *habitatio*, also *vîca* = *castellum*; *Gréenwich*, *Nórtwich*, *Dróitwich*, *Shéldwich*, *Dúlwich*, *Dúnwich*, *Álnwick* (pronounced *Ánnick*), *Bérwick* (pronounced *Bérrick*), *Hárwick* (pronounced *Hárrick*). *Sédgwick* &c. Thus the pronunciation of housewife „hüzzif“ otherwise also *hüs-wif* and the spelling *hússy* (pronounced *húzzý*) has arisen. After *th* an initial *w* is silent in the negligent pronunciation of *sóuthward* (pronounced *süthard*) and *sóuthernwood* (pronounced *süthernwood*) as well as in the vulgar pronunciation of *áukward* and *Sóuthwark*, which is almost corrupted into *Sóddrick*. *w* is extinguished between vowels in *tóward*, *tówards* c. der., wherein *ōw* is taken as the vowel.

Upon the silence of an originally consonantal *w* at the beginning and the end of a word, by which the vowel signs *ew*, *aw*, *ow* &c. partly arise, see below, (the origin of the vowels.)

3) The toothsounds *t*, *d*, *th*, *s*, *c*, *z*.

t is frequently silent betwixt consonants, particularly in the collision of *stl*: *whistle*, *thisle*, *mistletoe*, *wréstle*, *péstle*, *cástle*, *Cástlebar*, *Cástleton*, *hóstler*, *thróstle*, *bústle*; and *stn* (commonly with a preceding mute or rather *glib e*): *chéstnut*, *listen*, *listener*, *hásten*, *moisten*, and analogously with *stm*: *óften*, *sóften*; seldom in the muting of *stm*: *Christmas*; or *stc* in common life: *wáistcoat*; also in the combination *rtg* in: *mórtgage*, which also appears a matter of course with *ptc* in *bánkrupctcy*. In the popular *bóatswain* (*bōs'n*) it is lost before *sn*. Where *t* stands before *ch*, it is as idle in pronunciation as every other final reduplication: *fetch*, *catch* &c.

At the end of French words, not assimilated to the English pronunciation, it is silent, in the French manner: *billerdoux*, *trait*, *eclat*, *gout*, *hautboy* and many more.

d is silent at the beginning before *n*: *Dnieper*, *Dniester*.

In the compound *hándkerchief* *d* is rejected and *n* becomes nasal (= *n*). In careless utterance it is readily rejected between *n* and *s* as in: *Windsor*, *hándsome*, *hándsel*, *gróundsel*, although this is not approved by orthoepists. On the otherhand *wédnesday* is universally pronounced *wenzday*. *Fieldfare* is commonly pronounced without a *d*, and in *Kirkcudbright* (say *kirkkōbrý*) it likewise does not sound.

At the end of a word *d* after *n* is often not pronounced dialectically: *riband* is pronounced like *ribbon*, which is the better style, also *wéasand*, Anglosaxon *vásend*, *væsend*, is here and there pronounced like *vēz'n*.

The reduplication of *g* after a short vowel by *d* with a dental *g* (= *dzh*) is to be treated like that of *t* before *ch*.

th is, perhaps, silent in *clothes* (pronounced *cloze*) only. See above, *th* before *s*.

s is not silent at the beginning of a word, unless we consider it mute when combined with the dental *c*, as in *science* where, however, *e* may with the same reason pass for mute.

In the middle of some simple and compound words *s* (partly inorganic) is silent, particularly *l*, *n*, and *m*: *isle*, *island*, *Íslay* (pronounced *îlā*), *aisle*, *Carlisle*, *Lisle* (pronounced *Lisle*, *Lille*), *mēsne* (= middle), *demēsne* also spelt *demain* (Old-French *de-main*), *púisne* (pronounced *pūny*), *disme* (pronounced *dēme*, Old-French *disme*, *dixme*), as well as in *víscount*, *Lewisd'ór* and *Grósvenor*.

At the end of many French words not assimilated, *s*, as in French, is rejected: *avis*, *vis-a-vis*, *pas*, *châmois*, *shâmois* (pronounced *shámmy*, as it is also spelt) *sous*, *rendezvous*, *corps* and others. Yet it is pronounced in *glacis* and here and there in other words.

z is silent in the French *rendezvous*.

The throat-sounds *c*, *k*, *ch*, *g*, *gh*, *h*, *y*

c is mute at the beginning of foreign words before other consonants, as in *Cnéus*, *Ctésilas*, *czar*, *czarina* *c. der*.

In the middle of the word it is mute betwixt *s* and *l*: *muscle*, *árbuscle*, *córpuscule*; yet not in derivatives, as *corpúscular* and many such. The rejection of *c* before *t* is also usual in *víctual* (pronounced *vitt'l*), compare Old-French *vitaille*, Latin *victualia*; *indíct*, *indíctable*, *indíctment* and other derivatives alongside of which *indíte*, *indíter* is written.

c is likewise silent in *Connécticut*; cf. *Póntefract* and *Pómfret*.

k is always mute before *n* at the beginning of a word: *knee*, *know*, *knuckle*, *knight*.

ch is silent after an initial *s* in *schism* c. der; in *schédulo* *sch* is pronounced like *sh*; it is also mute in *yacht* and *drachm* (also spelt *drám*).

g is mute, like *k*, before *n* at the beginning of a word: *gnat*, *gnome*, *gnoff*.

In the middle of the word the silence of *g* before *m* and *n* occurs:

before *m*, when it concludes the syllable: *phlegm*, *ápophthegm*, *páradigm*, *párapegm*; but not with the augmentation of the word, when it becomes the initial sound before a vowel: *phlegmatic*, *páradigmátical*.

Before *n*, likewise, when this concludes the syllable: *impregn*, *féign*, *expugn*, *oppugn*, *propugn*, *desígn*, *malígn*, *fóreign*, *sóvereign*; in derivatives, only when their forms begin with a consonant, as *ment*, *ness*, *ly*, *ty*, *cy*: *designment*, *fóreignness*, *malígnly*, *sóvereignty*, *énsigncy*. Among the derivational forms beginning with a vowel, those in *ing* and *er* alone make the *g* mute: *féigning*, *desígning*, *oppúgnér*, *fóreignér*. Before all others beginning with vowels *g* becomes the final and *n* the initial sound: *impregnate*, *signal*, *benígnity*.

Moreover, *g* is not sounded in *póignant*; *cógnizance* (in the legal sense) *cónnizance*, and *cocágne* is, according to Smart, pronounced *cockâne*.

In the encounter of *gl* and *gn* with an unaccented *i* after it and another vowel arise forms of the iota *l* and *n*, in which *g* before *l* and *n* may in English be considered as cast out and *i* as having passed into a semiconsonant *y*: *intáglio*, *seráglio*, *óglio*, *bágnio*, *séignior*, *signior*.

The silence of *g* in the verbal form is provincial, for instance, in Derbyshire and Scotland.

gh is silent in the middle of the word, where *gh* stands before both an initial and a final *t*: *eight*, *straight*, *sought*, *bought*, *fought*, *night*, *might*, *right*, *flight*, *fright*, *sight*, *Connáught*, *míghty*, *rightly*, *sláughter*, *dáughter*, *dóughty*, as also in the long (or diphthong) accented syllables ending in *gh*: *weigh*, *neigh*, *néighbour*, *though*, *dough* (pronounced *dœ*), *althóugh*, *through*, *úsquebáugh* (Erse, whence *whisky*), *pugh!* *nigh*, *sigh*, *high*, *bough*, *plough*; *Annāgh*, *Armāgh*, *Nenāgh*. But this happens also in unaccented final syllables: *Râleigh*, *Chúmleigh*, *Hádleigh*, *Dénbigh*, *Kēogh*, *Cónemaugh*, *bórough*, *thórough* c. der., *fúrlough*. Even in Old-English we certainly find *u* and *w* substituted for *gh*: *plou*, *plow* = *glough*.

In the compounds of *burgh* this word is often made to sound like *bórough* (*burro*); *Édinburgh*, *Jédburgh* and others.

With the silence of *gh* is connected its rejection (together with *u*) at the end *tho'*, *altho'* and even *bro'* instead *bórough*.

h is by general consent, silent only in a few words not originally Germanic: *heir*, *honest*, *hónour*, *hóstler* (also spelt *ostler*), *hour*, *humble* and all their derivatives and compounds; but, of course, not in merely related words not immediately betraying an

English stem; as *héritage*, *hóral* &c. Many also add *herb* and *hóspital* to the above list. The inclination is, however, universal to regard *h* as mute in the unaccented syllable, beginning with *h* at the commencement of a word, on which account the article *an* instead of *a* is wont to be put before adjectives of that sort; for instance *héro* and an *heróical* &c.

About *h* before *i* see above.

In Greek words beginning with *rh*, *h* is mute: *rhétoric*, *rhúbarb*, *rheum*, also in *rhýme*; so too in the combination *dh* in *Búddha*.

Even where *h* begins an unaccented syllable after one closed with a consonant, a proneness exists to drop the aspiration, as in *ipecácuãna*, in *shepherd*, *dúngill* and others, for which reason also in names of place, as *Amherst*, *Dúrham*, *Háverhill* (pronounced *hāveril*), the *h* remains disregarded in the mouth of the people. Otherwise in an accented syllable, as *abhór*.

Before another final consonant it has likewise no phonetic value: *John*, *Jóhnson*, compare Old-Engl. *Jon*; *buhl*, *búhlwork*.

At the end it is mute after vowels and consonants: *eh!* *ah!* *hah!* *buh!* *oh!* *foh!* *sírrah!* *Messíah*, *Sárah*, *hállélújah*; *brámah*, *dáhlia*; *catárrh*.

Silence of vowels with consonants.

The rejection of consonants with a previous or a subsequent vowel is ordinarily speedily exhibited also in writing; yet the speech of the people has sanctioned abbreviations of this sort, not acknowledged by the written language, particularly in proper names.

Thus in the unaccented syllable a consonant with a mute *e* at the end is cast out as *be* in *Búncombe* (pronounced *búnküm*) and *Edgecombe* (pronounced *éj'küm*). In the middle of words *re* in the common pronunciation of *twelvemonth*, *Háverford* also *Havreford*; *te* in *lútestring* (also spelt *lustring*); *de* in the vulgar pronunciation of *Hýdepark*; *ce* in names compounded with *cester*: *Léicester*, *Glóoucester*, *Wórcester* (commonly also pronounced with an elided *r*) and others.

Conversely both vowel and consonant are lost in: *Léominster* (pronounced *lémster*); *an*; *Abergavénny* (pronounced *äberghénny*).

Two consonants with the included vowel in an unaccented syllable are cast out, like *ven* in *sevénnight* (pronounced *sénnit*) cf. *sennet* (SKELTON I. 107), *Sévenoaks* is pronounced in Kent: *Sún-nuck*; cf. *fortnight* = *fourteennight*; *ver* in *Wávertree* (pronounced *wátry*); *ren* in *Cirencester* (pronounced *cis-e-ter*), wherein at the same time *s* falls out before *t*. Compare *Exeter* in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER *Exetre* and *Excestre* I, 5 and 4.

Upon a similar glibness of the speech of common life rest rejections indicated by a mark of elision, like *gi'me* (*give*), *I'll* (*will, shall*), *I'd* (*would*), *thou'dst* (*hadst, wouldst*), *he'd* (*had, would*) and many more, which remain foreign to the more solemn language.

The syllable and the division of syllables.

The syllable consists either of a single vowel or diphthong, or of a combination of a consonant with a vowel, or conversely; or of a vowel surrounded by consonants. We recognize them as such by that all sounds constituting them are produced with an impulse.

A word, the sensuous expression of an image, may consist of one or of several syllables. The number of its syllables is articulated for the ear according to the number of sounds produced at one impulse. The division of syllables in writing is especially evident by the interruption of the word at the end of the line, and has, besides, a theoretical interest.

But by the peculiar influence of the accent in English upon the totality of the syllables of a polysyllabic word, and the proneness towards the attraction (see above) of the initial consonant of a subsequent syllable, as well as by the glibness of many final syllables, the division of syllables is hardened for apprehension by the ear, and often rendered still more difficult for the written language. The parting of syllables is most obvious where several consonants between vowels encounter each other which are separated by physiological conditions of the organs of speech, as in *ac-com-plish*; less decided, where a simple consonant appears between vowels, so that after a long vowel, as in *apparent*, with the glibness of the final syllable the division *appār-ent* or *appā-rent* may more readily catch the ear, and, after a short, attracted consonant, as in *ép-ic*, the divisions *ép-ic* and *ë-pic* seem to correspond alike ill to the phonetic relations.

With respect therefore to the division of syllables in writing, there is no complete agreement either among grammarians or in its employment in common life and in typography.

But with the principle which appears so natural, to consider in the division of syllables the sensuous articulation of the word as the standard, is associated the theoretical interest to render evident the stem and the termination, and, in the compounding of words, to render the separate stems manifest. But in this is also to be considered, that in English many derived and even compound words are no more present, as such, to the linguistic consciousness.

In the exposition of the principles for the division of syllables upon which authority is pretty well agreed must therefore be stated a) the general and leading points of view and b) their limitations conditioned by etymological considerations.

a) General Rules.

- 1) **Two vowels**, not serving to represent one simple sound or diphthong, are separable: *dí-al*, *deni-able*, *soci-ety*, *pré-viously*, *perspicu-ous*, *destróy-ing*, *knów-ing*, *apprópri-ate*, *superi-órité*.
- 2) If a consonant (with which, of course, must be reckoned the signs of simple sounds *ph*, *th*, *sh*, *ch*) stands between two vowels or diphthongs, then, apart from the inflectional and derivational

syllables beginning with a consonant, and cited below, the consonant is drawn to the following vowel: fēa-sible, pā-per, fā-ther, nō-tice, hu-mour, bi-shop, spi-rit, bá-che-lor, ori-gi-nal, gé-ne-ral, áu-tumn, acknów-ledgement, compā-nion.

This principle is often not observed with a short accented vowel, so that we frequently meet the division: prēs-ent, can-opy, philos-opher, abóm-inate &c., consistency with which is, however, not found throughout even in good lexicographers.

A mute *e* alone is never broken off from its preceding consonant: mouse, house, hinge.

- 3) **Two consonants**, standing between two vowels or diphthongs, are divided as the final and the initial sound, unless a mute stands along with a liquid consonant and can form the initial sound of the last vowel, which is not the case, if the liquid commences a derivative syllable: mán-ner, púl-ley, bég-gar, múr-der, ség-ment, prin-ciple, díg-nity, bap-tize, apárt-ment, fús-tian, progrés-sion, obstrúc-tion, Egýp-tian.

The combination of a mute and a liquid consonant at the beginning of a syllable is mostly confined to *r*: á-pron, prop-riety, péne-trate, álge-bra, sé-cret, sá-cred, orthó-graphy; *l*, on the other hand does not combine readily: púb-lic, púb-lish, estáb-lish, neg-lécting, even dec-lamá-tion; although péo-ple, scrú-ple, sýlla-ble, trí-fle and the like are written.

ck is always drawn to the last syllable: póck-et, chick-ens, Cóck-eram; likewise *x*, even when it occurs in words not com-pounded: vex-átion, véx-il, prox-imity.

- 4) If **three consonants** separate the vocalization, the last two, if consisting of a mute and a liquid or of two consonants combine at the beginning of stems, are drawn to the following syllable = mém-brane, cúm-brous, dóc-trine, mágis-trate, scép-tre, hún-dred; búb-bling, cát-tle, mid-dle, swin-dler, sprin-kle, strúg-gle.

Yet we usually find, after a nasal *n*, the consonants *kl*, *g* separated, (except before a single mute *e*): twink-ling, ming-ling, éng-lish.

But if the two latter consonants are not of the kind above indicated, the former two are drawn to the former syllable: distinc-tion, émp-ty, absórp-tion, presúmp-tive.

- b) **Limitations through etymological considerations.**

- 1) The **inflectional and derivational terminations** condition divisions of syllables not according with the rules generally valid, especially for stems.

a) derivational terminations commencing with a consonant (resting partly upon composition) are always separated, even from prior consonants, as *ness*, *ment*, *ly* &c.

β) on inflectional and derivational terminations beginning with a vowel no perfect agreement prevails; but their separation

from the stem ending with a consonant only takes place with terminations felt decidedly as derivational forms. The separation is readily avoided in many cases.

The termination *ing* is unanimously separated from the stem: léad-ing, despóil-ing, búild-ing, léarn-ing, ádd-ing, fáll-ing, spéll-ing. — Double consonants are given to the syllable of the stem, unless they first appear with the termination, else they are usually separated; hence rún-ning, fit-ting, blót-ting &c. Even if the stem ends with a consonant and a mute *e*, with the rejection of the *e*, the consonant usually remains to the stem: giv-ing, unit-ing, háv-ing, móv-ing, appróv-ing, detérg-ing; although many then draw the consonant to the termination: detér-ging, wri-ting; and thus also before other terminations. On twink-ling &c. see above.

In substantives in *er* derived from verbal stems the same thing happens: téach-er, réad-er, hélp-er (yet not with reduplicated consonants: skim-mer; likewise when the stem ends in *e* wri-ter) and in words in *ard*: drunk-ard. In the comparative and superlative the *er* and *est* are also separated from the stem: gréat-er, bróad-est, néar-est.

The terminations *ence* and *ance* are likewise usually separated: réfer-ence, differ-ence, exist-ence, appéar-ance, acquáint-ance, perfórm-ance; on the other hand excrés-cence and, according to the correct feeling, violence; also *age*: hánd-age; *ary*: diction-ary; *ure*: depárt-ure even displéas-ure. Thus also *ity* is separated: quál-ity, chár-ity, regulár-ity. Of verbal terminations *en* and *on*: belong here: dárk-en, shórt-en, réck-on; *ish* and *ize* are also found separated: pún-ish, aból-ish; cáracter-ize, génerál-ize; as well as *ate*: adúlter-ate.

The verbal inflection *ed* is regularly separated: fábricat-ed, demánd-ed, demént-ed.

Among the adjective terminations we find *ish*, *ical*, *istic*, *ian*, *ent*, *able*, *ous* and others separated: fóol-ish, crit-ical, cháracter-ístic, differ-ent, réason-able, remárk-able, resólv-able (even move-able), póison-ous, dánger-ous &c. It often depends upon that the syllable of formation is added to a stem universally known (which itself may contain a derivation) which one thinks it is not permitted to deprive of its final consonant. Strict consistency is not observed even by the correctest writers.

The separation of the unaccented vowels *ia*, *ie*, *eo*, *io* and the like, particularly in derivational terminations beginning with *s*, *c*, *t*, as argiláce-ous, sagáci-ous, posséssi-on, conditi-on, is decidedly disapproved. We divide: spé-cial, intervén-ient, argillá-ceous, relá-tion &c., although also sometimes: provis-ion.

- 2) Where the composition is present to the linguistic consciousness, the constituents are separated in the division of the syllables, without regard to the above general rules; wherein the nature

of the constituents is indifferent: in-áctive, Eng-land, a-stráy, an-óther, up-ón, re-stráin, re-spéct, be-twéen, dis-eáse, as-certain, de-stróy, when-éver, shép-herd, béef-eater &c.

Yet we find divisions such as ab-stáin, ab-scónded, dis-tilled and the like, through mistaking the constituents, or from the greater ease of pronunciation, as divisions in words like penúltimate and others no longer allow the consideration of composition to appear.

The word and its accent.

The word, as expression of an image, consists, in its simplest form, of one syllable. Polysyllables arise through the junction of syllables of formation to the syllable of the stem (Suffixes), as well as by the conjunction of still recognizable stems, either with or without further syllables of formation. Syllables constituting the simple or compound word, are recognized as the expression of one total image by being comprehended under a principal accent. This is received by one syllable, which is therefore called the accented syllable, the others having a subordinate accent.

The monosyllable can, in regard to its accent, be measured only within the sentence; many monosyllables (as the article, pronoun, preposition and auxiliary word) may attach themselves proclitically to the accent of the following word, or enclitically to that of the previous word and are prejudiced not only quantitatively and qualitatively in regard to their vocalization, but also in strength of sound.

Words of more than one syllable, and especially polysyllables have a gradation of accent within themselves, and, besides the principal accent, a second, (rarely a third), called the subordinate accent, may come forth.

The English tongue, in the accenting of its words, has had various principles to adjust among each other. The principle of accenting the syllable of the stem of the simple word proceeded from the Anglosaxon elements of the language; the Norman-French stock of words established the accenting of the full final syllable; the Latin and Latin-Greek elements, coming in along with the study of the classics, procured admission for the Latin principle; according to which in disyllables the first, in polysyllables, the penultimate or the antepenultimate necessarily has the accent.

In general the principle of accenting the syllable of the stem in words of more than one syllable has carried off the victory; the French principle of accenting the final syllable has maintained itself in many cases, as it were, exceptionally; yet the Latin accenting, particularly in the Latin-French forms of words in the modern English has obtained intensively, through the cooperation of philologists.

A distinction takes place, however, in certain cases, in the accenting of simple and of compound words, with the Germanic and other constituents of the compound, although many words originally compounds are no longer felt as such.

In treating primarily of the accent of the word, as sole or principal accent, we consider first the simple word, and then the compound word, whereupon ensues the exposition of the relation of principal and subordinate accent.

A) The Doctrine of the Accent, as principal Accent.

1) The accent of the simple word.

- a) In general the endeavour is visible in modern English, to give the accent to the syllable of the stem, which, in the simple word, is regularly the first, and to maintain this in the further formation from that word, whence it may happen that the accent recedes to the sixth syllable from the end: discipline, disciplinable, disciplinableness, although a counterpoise is in many cases given to the multitude of unaccented syllables by the subordinate accent.

Instances of this accenting, which has its bound in the limitations specified under *b*, *c*, *d* are offered by all classes of words having derivatives to exhibit: *ape*, ápish, ápishly, ápishness; *apt*, áptly, áptness, áptitude; *fish*, fisher, fishery; *dead*, déadly, déadliness; *change*, chángeling, chángearable, chángearableness; *coop*, cóoper, cóoperage; *crime*, criminal, criminalness, criminous, criminously, criminousness, criminate, criminatory; *author*, áuthorress, áuthorize; *idol*, idolish, idolize, idolizer, idolism, idolist; *bánish*, bánísher, báníshment; *cast*le, cástlet, cástellan, cástellany; *alien*, álienable, álicenate, álienator; *casual*, cásuallness, cásualty; *castigate*, cástigator, cástigatory.

It is to be remarked, however, that in the accenting of the syllable of the stem in words of three and more syllables, on the one hand the length by position of the penultimate (a mute and a liquid letter not being reckoned) is avoided, and that in the multiplication of the syllables of formation *ness*, *ment*, *ling*, *ly*, *ry*, *ty* and *cy* beginning with a consonant chiefly make length by position, that a collision of the vowels of the penultimate and the final syllable is likewise avoided, and that polysyllabic words with the accent on the syllable of the stem mostly contain a series of unaccented syllables of a simple consonant and vowel, with the exception of the last.

Compare the trisyllables: ánimál, ámorist, ávarice, ánglican, ésculent, órigin, númerous, nótary, pénitence, báchelor, bóundary, dángeraus, chángearable, célature, gárgarize; with length by position in the penultimate: bóyishness, púnishment, fóstlerling, bléssedly, blázonry, crúelty, ágency, brígangage, cówardice, bástar-dize; dúellist, scintillate, óscillate; yet also chámberlain and a few others.

tetrasyllables: imagerý, cémetery, bálneary, áuditory, ágrimony, délicacy, álopecy, ágitator, líterature,

créditable, álterative, liberalize, bóronetage, cánnibalism, sántuarize; with length by position in the penultimate: áctualness, áctually, cásualty, cásuistry, brilliancy, árbalister, álabaster and the like. Length by position in previous syllables certainly occurs without influence on the accent: libertinism, báptistry, miscellany.

Words of five and more syllables: disciplinable, disciplinary, bálneatory, álterableness, ámiableness, sóciableness, disciplinableness.

The terminations *ful*, *less*, *some*, *ship*, *hood* and the like, which, properly speaking, form compounds, are always unaccented, and therefore are joined to stems without prejudice to the accent.

That, however, in polysyllables the length by position otherwise allowed remains here and there not without import, is shown by forms like árguméntative, dócuméntary, éleémentary, in which the originally subordinate receives the place of the principal accent: clandéستine, lacértine, elephántine, whereas crýstalline, córalline and the like are tolerated.

b) But a number of words has the accent upon the last syllable

α) Here in the first place must be mentioned the principle of **Dissimilation** followed here and there, especially in disyllabic words, which is often considered in compounding, and according to which different parts of speech with a like form of the word are distinguished by the accent. Compare áugment substantive, to augment; férment substantive, to ferment; tórmént substantive, to torment; fréquent adjective, to frequent; (although cemént, lamént appear both as substantives and as verbs fomént only as a verb) bómbard substantive, to bombard; reversely brevét substantive, to brevét; hallóo Interjection to hálloo; lévánt adjective levánt substantive; minute substantive, minúte adjective, Aúgust (the month), augúst adjective; gállant adjective, gallánt adjective and substantive; súpine substantive, supine adjective, búffet (a blow) buffét a sideboard.

β) But a not inconsiderable number of words retains the accent upon this syllable, which was given to it in its **French, Latin** or other foreign home, and eludes a thorough analogy. Betwixt the originally French or Latin accent a distinction is not often to be drawn, both commonly coinciding.

Here belong **substantives**: basháw; rouleáu, bureáu, chateáu; canóe, bambóo, Hindóo; chagrin, bombasín; nankéen, cantéen, caréen; champáign, benzóin; artisán, caraván, courtezán; gazón; Brasil, fusíl, gazél; chevál, canál, cabál (an English word); contról substantive and verb (properly a compound), mogúl; bazáar, boudoir, abattoir, abreuvoir; accouchéur (a compound), amatéur, corridór, amóur, estafét, bidét, buffét, cadét, coquét, curvét, canzonét; cravát, marmót, sabót; glacis, abattis; alcaid, caréss substantive and verb, ma-

tróss, placárd, basált, elénch, bombást, marine, magazine, machine, tontine, chicáne; bastile; caviáre; chemise, caprice, Chinése, finése, grimáce, cabóose Hollandish kabuys), accouchéuse, embrasúre, embouchúre; giraffe, alcóve, finance, harángue; champágne, allemánde and others.

Adjectives of this sort are: benign, malign, acérb, supérb, augúst, rotúnd, extrémé, sincére, austére, séréne, terréne, divine, saline, canine, supine, humáne, polite, matúre; the disyllables in *íte*: minúte, hirsúte, nasúte; alérte and others.

Verbs are rare, as cajóle, caróuse, calcine, baptize, chastise, cornúte (to cúckold), créate, narráte (according to Smart), posséss (properly a compound). Words with an inorganic *e*, as esquire, eschéw &c., have the accent upon the syllable of the stem, on the other hand not estéem; in obéy (obedio = obaudio) the accenting has hardly proceeded from any consciousness of its composition.

- 7) Other words follow more decidedly a conscious rule, as to which it is to be remarked that the accenting of definite syllables of formation concerns compound, as well as simple words.
- 1) Names of persons in *ee* have the accent on the last syllable: bailée, feoffée, debtée, bargainée, devotée, imparsonée. Names of things and abstract nouns form in part exceptions, especially disyllables: cóffee, spóndee, tróchee, cóuchee. lèvee, committee, jubilee.
- 2) Names of persons and things in *oon*: Maróon, buffóon, dragóon; ballóon, bassóon, batóon, dublóon, macaróon.
- 3) Names of persons in *eer* and *ier*: muletéer, musketéer, buccanéer also bucanier, voluntéer, ingénéer; brigadier, financier, cavalier, gondolier. Names of things likewise occur: caréer, chandelier, yet not without exceptions, especially disyllables in *ier*: pánnier, bárrier, cárrier, even names of persons: cóurtier, cóurier.
- 4) Abstract and concrete nouns in *ade*: ambuscáde, promenáde, blockáde, fougáde, calvacáde, rodomontáde. Exceptions are: ámbassade, (Walker has the accent on the last), ebrillade, mármalade, bálustrate, drágoonade and others.
- 5) Words in *ette*, properly French: étiquétte (according to others étiquette), banquétte, brunétte, gazétte, grisétte.
- 6) Adjectives in *ose* if disyllables: aquóse, moróse, nodóse, rugóse, verbóse, jocóse; a few among polysyllables, as acetóse, armentóse, whereas others accent the syllable of the stem: púlicose, béllicose, váricose, cáculose, córticose &c., having commonly subordinate forms in *ous*.
- 7) Words in *esque*: morésque, burlésque, grotésque, románésque, picturésque.

Further derivatives from such words retain in general the accent upon the same syllable; compare *divîner*, *cajôler*, *benignantly*, *buffoonery* &c.; although exceptions also occur, as *dragoonade* from *dragôon* (see above).

In the fourteenth century the French accenting of the full final syllable is still very common: thus we ordinarily find in Chaucer: *honôur*, *humôur*, *licôur*, *resôn*, *prisôn*, *squiér*, *burgéis*, *contré*, and in words in the then not always silent *e*: *madâme*, *natûre*, *corâge*, *Turkie*, *vertûe* &c. also in Skelton: *queréll*, *counséll*, *serpént*, *mercý*, *pleasûre*, *savâge* and many others; rarely in Spenser in disyllables such as *forést*, whereas in polysyllables the last syllable frequently appears under a subordinate accent, as a masculine rhyme: *furiôus*, *hideôus*, *dalliaunce*, *merimént* &c.

c) Many words have the accent on the penultimate.

α) A number of Latin, Greek and Romance words have retained this their original accent and betray their foreignness mostly by their terminations. To these belong again especially substantives, which are often quite foreign to the popular speech: *chiméra*, *corôna*, *aurôra*, *censûra*; Greek words in *μα* and *ουα*: *empyéma*, *glaucôma* &c.; *banâna*, *cavatina*, *bravâdo*, *armâda*, *cantâta*, *Jacôbus*, *canâry*, *anchôvy*; *echînus*, *papýrus*, *pomátum*, *abdômen*, *legúmen*, *decórum*, *cadáver*, *tribúnal*, *Jehôvah*; *Orion*, *choréous*, *lycéum*, *mausoléum*, *empyréon*; *ænigma*, *arbústum*, *aspháltum*, *oméntum*, *involúcrum* (compounded), *colósus*, *meándér*, *novémber*, *decémber*, *Augústins* &c. *andânte*, *tobácco*; therewith *idéa* (*ιδέα*), *assáassin*, *cham-pignon*, and the Germanic *eléven*. The Greek words in *ησις* and *ωσις* always have this accent: *mimé-sis*, *mathé-sis*, *e-re-gé-sis*, *narcô-sis*, *chlorô-sis* and others. **Adjectives** have hardly been thus brought over, as *sinister* (however with a metaphorical meaning *sinister*), the Italian *maestóso* and a few others. Simple **verbs** of this class are likewise rare, as *imá-gine*, *altér-nate* (according to the rule for compounds) *fratér-nize* and many others.

β) But some **derivational terminations** require regularly this accenting in polysyllables; here belong:

1) nouns in *ic*, which sound may also be the penultimate: *chal-dáic*, *heróic*, *angélic*, *dramá-tic*, *lacónic*, *scorbú-tic*, *forénsic*, *anárchic*, *ecclesiástic* &c.

Exceptions are formed by only a few among the great number of nouns: *árabic*, *ársenic* (but adjective *ársenic*), *arith-metic*, *lúnatic*, *rhétoric*, *pólitic*, *phlégmatic*, *súl-phuric*, *splénetic*, *héré-tic* (all with an open penultimate).

2) among adjectives in *ous* a few in *or-ous*, Latin *ôrus*: *decô-rous*, *sonô-rous*, *canô-rous*, except *dedecô-rous* (Latin *ôrus*); and those with a penultimate syllable long by position: *atraméntous*, *moménto'us*, *enôrmous*, *inérmous*.

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- 3) adjectives in *al*, when the penultimate is long by position: baptismal, autúmnal, etérnal, matérnal, noctúrnal, oríental, atraméntal, colóssal &c.; rarely out of position: machínal, vagínal, corónal, sacerdotál, mostly with a regard to the original accented syllable; on the other hand náatural, original &c.
- 4) trisyllables in *at-or*, which receive the accent on the syllable accented in Latin: equátor, narrátor, testátor, dictátor, spectátor, curátor; yet even here exceptions are found: órator, bárator, sénator; polysyllables, even compounds ones, have only the subordinate accent upon *a*: álienátor, ámbulátor, ádulátor, admínistrátor, assássinátor, ínstaurator.
- 5) Nouns in *ean*: Européan, Manichéan. Atlantéan, adamantéan, Augéan, lethéan, Pythagoréan, Sabéan; yet many have the accent upon the antepenultimate, mostly with reference to Latin forms: marmórean, cerúlean, cerbérean, Prométhean, Hercúlean, ebúrnean, elýsean.
- 6) words in *ive* always have the accent upon the preceding close syllable. Since this syllable of formation mostly attaches itself immediately to a participial syllable of the stem, no deviation from the first rule takes place here. Moreover most words belonging here are compounds with a close syllable in position: posséssive, instrúctive, offénsive &c.; that other monosyllabic stems must also have the same accent is clear: adhésive, collúsiue &c.; on the other hand not polysyllabic forms with an open penultimate: pósitoive, primitiue &c. (see below).
- c) a great number of derivatives requires the accent upon the antepenultimate, whether this is the syllable of the stem or not; here belong
 - 1) terminations in which a final syllable beginning with a vowel is preceded by *i*, *e* and *u*. How these proparoxytones are often transformed into paroxytones for pronunciation has been above remarked. Here belong: *i-an*, *i-on*, *i-ent*, *i-ence*, *i-ant*, *i-ance*, *i-al*, *e-al*, *u-al*, *i-ar*, *i-or*, *i-ad*, *i-ate*, *u-ate*, *i-ast*, *i-asm*, *i-ous*, *e-ous*, *u-ous*, *i-ac* and others.

ian: elýsian, musician, barbárian, censórian, civilian (on *ean* see above).

ion: opinion, foundátion, cessátion, quadrillion, batállion, Phócion.

ient, *ience*: pátient, obédient — obédience.

iant, *iance*: brilliant, váliant — váliance.

ial, *eal*, *ual*: aérial, artériál, esséntial; ethéreal, corpóreál; habitual, individual.

iar, *ior*: familiár, auxiliár; infériór, antériór, supériór, postériór.

iad: Íliad, Olýmpiad, mýriad, chiliad.

iate, uate: humiliate, centúriate; habituate.

ias, iasm: enthúsiast, encómiast; enthúsiasm (properly compounds).

ious, eous, uous: alimónious, licéntious, labórious; erróneous, arbóreous, sanguineous; volúptuous, túmúltuous, conterráneous; yet also spírituous (with a regard to spirit).

iac: elephántiac, demóniac, genéthliacs, clúniac, cárdiac; but not elegiac.

Latin-greek words in *ius, ía, íum, íes*, which have been immediately brought over of course retain the accent upon the antepenultimate, whether it is or is not the syllable of the stem, in simple and compound forms: Július, Sírius; Victória, nǎenia, encénia, ópium; minium, bdéllium, elýsium, allódium, herbárium, millénium, geránum; effigies &c., as well as those in *éus, éa*: Cadúceus, náusea, especially the Greek words in *εύς*, which are resolved into *é us*: Órpheus, Ótreus, Théseus &c.

- 2) further, words in which a connecting vowel precedes a termination beginning with a consonant, or a consonant a termination commencing with a vowel. These are, essentially, double suffixes, which are joined to stems or to already suffixed stems. Here belong the terminations of substantives:

i-a-sis: proriasis, elephantiasis, pityriasis and other Greek words.

i-ty, e-ty: annúity, ability, antiquity, barbárity, captivity; ebriety, anxiety, variety.

i-tude: beátitude, vicissitude, similitude.

er-y, corresponding to the French in *erie*: artillery, machinery, chicánery.

ic-ism: fanáticism.

many terminations of adjectives, as *ive, al, ar* and *ous*, which are preceded by another termination consisting of a simple vowel and consonant.

it-, at-, ut-, ive, yet not without important exceptions, and mostly only in polysyllables and words compounded of prefixes: pósitoive, primitíve, infinitíve, acquísitive; négative, tálkative; dimínutive; otherwise in compound notional words: législátive, lócomótive, and even imáginative and émanátive.

im-, in-, ic-, ac-al: millésimal; original; elénchical, babylónical, cylindrical; demoníacal; but cárdiacal.

ul-, c-ul-ar: triángular, artícular, navícular, canícular.

in-, it-, at-, ic-, er-, or-, ul-, c-ul-ous, generally those with an open penultimate: lúminous, résinous, bombýcinous, abdóminous; fortúitous, calámitous; exanthématus; véntricous, váricous; slándicrous, cadáverous;

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vigorous (on *orous* see p. 78), *vénturous*; *fábulous*, *ventriculous*, *miráculous* &c.; except *desirous*.

o-, *u-leut*: *sómnolent*, *córpulent*, *cinérulent*.

The adjective and verbal termination *ate*, which, especially in compounds, does not readily permit the accenting of the penultimate, (see below) therefore throws it on the prefix, has also in simple words the accent upon the antepenultimate, if *ate* is added to another syllable of formation, hence especially in the forms: *im-*, *it-*, *ic-*, *ul-*, *c-ul-ate*: *legítimate*, *capácite*, *domésticate*, *acídulate*, *capítulate*, *artícuate*.

2) The accent of the compound word.

Compounding is in English of a twofold kind. The elements of the compound are either present in English, whether they are of Germanic or of Romance origin, or, the compound has been transferred and partly even imitated from other tongues. The former, although hybrid (consisting of Germanic and other elements) are nevertheless to be regarded as genuine English, the others to be distinguished from them as foreign compounds.

a) The compounding of nouns and verbs among and with each other.

a) English compounds are distinguished from those of other Germanic tongues in regard to the accent in this; that not in every compound, even of notional words, a subordinate goes along with the principal accent, but the word rather receives by its accentuation, the character of a simple word unless the weight of its greater number of syllables demands a decided subordinate accent, on which account we may here in general disregard the latter.

Yet the accented words ordinarily retain their quantity, although exceptions occur, as *shěpherd*, *vīneyard* &c.

On the whole, in the classes of words here considered the rule prevails to accent the **first** constituent, as the determining word:

Substantives: *bówstring*, *bóatswain*, *dáylight*, *séa-serpent*, *chámbermaid*, *hándkerchief*; *géntlemen*, *géntlewóman*, *bróadsword*, *bláckbird*, *first-fruits*; *ámbs-ace*, *állheal* (plant), *állspice*, *álnight*, *bréwhouse*, *dráwwell*.

Adjectives: *áwful*, *cáreful*, *cáuseless* (these terminations are treated precisely like syllables of derivation); *báre-faced*, *brówbeat*, *créstfallen*, *éarthly-minded*; *fóurforted*, *fívefold*.

Numerals: *fóurteen*, *fíftēen*; yet these lean to the accenting of the last syllable, and the **Ordinals:** *thirtéenth*, *fiftéenth* &c. are chiefly accented upon the last by orthoepists.

Pronouns form partly an exception: thus *mysélf*, *him-*

self &c.; the indefinite somewhat, somebody, something, nobody, nothing follow the rule of substantives. The generalizing ones compounded of particles whoever, whosoever, whichever &c. accent the particle; yet not who-so.

Verbs, máinswear, Anglosaxon mánsverjan, báckbite, dúmbfound, finedraw, néw-model, bréakfast; yet vouchsáfe, backslide, new-fángle.

Deviations, as in mankind and mánkind (in Milton), hobgóblin and hóbgoblin, highwáy and highwayman are rare; but uncertainly and variation take place in compounds betraying the character of a syntactic relation. Here belong especially substantives preceded by an adjective in the attributive mode: free-cóst, free-will, black-púdding, black-ród, bloody-swéat, ill-nátur, ill-will, human-kind, Black-Mónday, all-fóurs, all-hállows &c.; and according to the French accent and collocation: knight-érrant; substantives betraying the appositive relation: hap-házard, earl-márshal, tomtit (as it were, a proper name), Jack-púdding and in the additional relation: north-éast north-wést &c.; especially substantives with a genitive preceding: Chárlés's-wáin (a constellation), Lády's-cómb (a plant) and many more; and names of days, as áll-souls-dáy, áll-sáints-dáy; but also popular designations: Ashwédnesday, ládydáy, bulkhéad, bondbáiliff and bumbáiliff, and others. If, further, attributes are annexed to the noun, especially with prepositions, the principal accent falls upon the attribute, as in Jáck-by-the-hédge, Jáck-a-lántern &c. Yet the popular pronunciation leans to the contrary: són-in-law, fáther-in-law &c. Adjectives seldom, as in cláre-obscúre (substantive) áshy-pále, let the accent rest upon the last constituent, yet the syntactical relation is predominant, especially with participles preceded by a determination operating adverbially, as in near-síghted, faint-heárted, fresh-wátered and the like, especially in those compounded of *all*: all-seéing, all-accómplished, and many such.

- 2) Compounds originally foreign to English are, for the most part, substantives, and have partly become foreign to linguistic consciousness, as compounds. They have the predominant bias to accent the originally determinative word. Modern imitations belong here also.

Disyllables of this sort therefore have the accent upon the first syllable:

Substantives: návarch, héptarch, — áugur, áuspice, sólstice, — mórtgage, háutboy, kérchief, cúrfew, cinque,-foil, béldam, bógrace, bótefeu, máinprise.

Adjectives hardly exist.

The compound verb maintáin has the accent upon the last syllable.

Modern unassimilated words, especially French ones, have retained their accent: bonáir, bonmót, haut-góut, and many more.

Trisyllables mostly have the same accent, especially when they have an open penultimate, to which belong in particular the Greek and Latin words with the connecting vowels *i, o*:

Substantives: *mónarchy, misanthrope, pédagogue, démagogue, stratégie, strángury*; — *mónologue, hípodrome, hólocaust*; — *áqueduct, úsufruct, mánu-script*; — *ármiger, ármistice, sánguísuge, dápifer, párricide, vérmífuge, girasole, bélamie, tripmadam, chánticleer*; yet also *máinpernor*.

Adjectives: *óρθodox, múltiform, úniform, násiform.*

Verbs: *mánumit, crúcify, cálefy* and all compounded of *fy*.

Exceptions are formed by many with a quantity and accent originally Greek, Latin or French, as: *chirágra, factótum, portfólio*; especially with a penultimate long by position: *arúspex, arúspice; portcúllis, portmánteau, champéرتor, champéرتy* and many such; likewise all adjectives compounded of *fic*: *maléfíc, magnífíc, pacífíc &c.*

In **polysyllables**, borrowed and partly imitated from the Greek and the Latin, the language reveals the decided effort not to transport the accent back beyond the antepenultimate, according to the Latin fashion, but to fix it there, through which the accent often falls upon the connecting vowel:

Substantives: *monópoly, theómachy, polýgamy, mis-ánthropy, cranióscopy, hendécagon, monógamist, hermáphrodite, barómeter, zoógrapher*; — *omnipotence, benéfícence, soliloquy, attíloquence, funám-bulist.*

Adjectives: *homólogous, homótonous, ambiloquous* according to the law for *ous*), *altisonant, bellígerent, benéfícant, mellífluent*; *convéxo-cóncave* and therefore also Anglo-Sáxon, Anglo-Nórman, Anglo-Dánish.

Here therefore the accent frequently omits the fundamental word. Yet with many the inclination prevails to accent the determinant word upon the syllable of the stem, even before the antepenultimate, for example: *állegory, órthoepy, cárdialgy, hieroglyph, héresiarch, mélancholy, áristocrate* and many more; *áeronaut, ágrículture, hórticulture &c.*

With others, on the contrary, length by position effects the transfer of the accent to the penultimate: *polyándry, litho-déndron, ágonístarch; benefáctor, Benedictíne*, as in *áqua-tínta, áqua-fórtis*; *polyándrous, heptaphýllous* (according to the rule for *-ous*).

Even without this reason we find such accenting as in *omniprésence* (compare *omnipotence*).

The verb *ánimadvért* has the principal accent upon the last syllable.

Those derived from polysyllables follow the rule of the removal of the accent back, so far as derivational terminations do not decidedly require it on any particular syllable, for example:

óρθodoxy from óρθodox, mélancholize from mélancholy, and so forth.

b) Compounding of particles with particles and other parts of speech.

Here peculiarities, as well as differences, shew themselves, which are partly ascribable to the employment of Germanic or non Germanic particles and come particularly under consideration in the compounding with nouns and verbs.

a) Compounding of particles with particles.

The general rule in these words compounded of Germanic elements requires the accent on the last constituent of the compound. To them belong those compounded of inseparable prefixes, as *a, be*: afóre; beyónd &c.; even with an originally double prefix: abóut, Anglosaxon â-be-ûtan, as well as those consisting of independent particles: althóugh, unléss, until, upón, withóut, whereóf, whereát, herebý, whenéver, moreóver, throughóut, undernéath, overagáinst &c.; with which even a part may even be compound: thereupón, hencefóward, whéreintó, whéreuntó (from into, únto with the accent changed); Interjections, as welawáy (Anglosaxon vâ lâ vâ), slapdâsh! whereas others, as hip, hop! accent the first constituent, or like héydáy! both alike.

Variations there certainly are, to which belong into, únto, hitherto, álso; those compounded with *ward, wards*, properly adjectives: úpward, tóward, tówards, hitherward &c., some with *where, there, here*: whérefore, whéreso, whéreabóut, héreabóut, thérefore &c., élsewhere, nówhere; with *thence*: thénceforth, théncefrom (but thencefóward); those with the pronominal *some*: sómewhere, sómewhither, sómehow, álso fúthermore and some others, as the substantive *while* in érstwhile &c.

Those cases cannot be considered as exceptions which must in fact be regarded as compounds of nouns: sóme—what, móstwhat, nóway, nóways, sómetime, like—wise &c. The adjective superlatives inmost, óutmost &c. do not belong here.

Particles consisting of prepositions and nouns, in which the proclitic preposition has its effect, accent the noun: in—déd, outright, forsóoth, perháps, perchánce and so forth. Yet here afórehand, afóretime, áfterall, and óvermúch (cf. óversóon) form exceptions.

β) Compounding of Particles with Nouns.

1) of Germanic Particles:

a) Nouns of this sort, among which but a few adjectives have been preserved, throw, with the exception of the inseparable particles *a, be, for*, as well as of the negatives *un* and *mis*, the accent upon the particle. *Mis* certainly often receives the subordinate accent; where it has the principal accent,

the noun rests upon forms originally French, as *mischief*, *miscreant* c. der. *Un* has the accent in *únthrift*. *Parasyntheta*, that is, derivatives from other compounds (here from verbs) retain the accent of their primitive; substantives in *ing*, since they also may be regarded as *parasyntheta*, fluctuate here and there.

Here come particularly under consideration forms of nouns with the particles *in*, *after*, *on*, *off*, *over*, *out*, *under*, *up*, *by*, *fore*, *forth*, *thorough* and *well*.

in (often hard to separate from the Latin *in*): **Substantives:** *inmate*, *inland*, *income*, *indraught*, *inlay*, but as a verb *inláy* &c. **Adjectives:** *inly*, *inward* &c.

after: **Substantives:** *afterbirth*, *afterthought*, *after-crop* &c.

• *on*: **Substantives:** *ónset*, *ónslaught*.

off: **Substantives:** *óffal*, *óffspring*, *óffscum*, *óff-scouring*.

over: **Substantives:** *óverfall*, *óverlight*, *óverjoy*, *óvercharge*, *óverbáance*, also *óverréacher* and *óver-rúler*, in spite of the verbs *óverréach*, *óverrúle*. **Adjectives:** *óvergreat*, *óverfrúitful*; yet commonly with the principal accent upon the fundamental word: *óver-prómpst*, *óverlárge*, *óverbúsy*, *óverhásty*, *óvercrédulous* &c.; hence also in the substantives derived therefrom, as *óverquietness*.

out: **Substantives:** *óutlaw*, *óutroad*, *óutgate*, *óut-line*, even *óutgoing*, *óutpouring*, also *óutrider* (yet not in the sense of the verb *óutride*). **Adjectives:** *óut-blown*, *óutborn*, *óutbound*, but *óutlándish*.

under: **Substantives:** *únderléaf*, *úndergrówth*, *úndercróft* &c., yet in polysyllables often with the accent advanced: *únderfáculity*, *úndershériffry*, *úndertréasurer*, even *únderféllo*. **Adjective:** *únderbréd*.

up: **Substantives:** *úproar*, *úpsnot*, *úpspring* (yet naturally *upbráider*, *uphólder* &c. from *upbráid*, *uphóld*). **Adjective:** *úpright*.

by: **Substantives:** *bý-end*, *bý-name*, *bý-púrpose*; compounded of polysyllabic, mostly Romance words, often, however, accented upon the fundamental word: *bý-depén-dence*, *bý-concérnment*, *bý-interest*, *bý-design*.

fore: *fórefoot*, *fórehand*, *fóresight* (but *Adjective foresightful* &c., and many *parasyntheta*, as *forebóder*, *forewárning* &c.; yet also *forespúrrer* without the corresponding verb). Some retain the accent on the fundamental word: *forenóice*. **Adjectives**, mostly with participial forms without the corresponding verb: *fórecited*, *fóre-mentioned*, *fórepossessed*, *fórehanded*, yet also *fore-vóuched*, *forespént* and *forewórn* &c.

forth: few substantives with a verbal accent: *forthcóm-*

ing, forthissuing, on the other hand fôrthright (as adverb).

thorough: **Substantives**: thórough-wax, thórough-wort, on the other hand thórough-håse; **Adjectives**: thórough-bréd, but also thórough-lighted, and many such.

well: **Substantives**: wélfare; yet in the form *well* fluctuating in the accent: well-willer, well-wisher; on the other hand wéll-being, and **adjectives** with the participial form: wéll-born, wéll-bred, yet well-fávoured and many such.

Other compounds assume the adjective form instead of the adverb before the fundamental word, and fall into the sphere of the compounding of nouns.

- 3.) **Verbs** with Germanic particles, except those with the above mentioned unaccented ones, only compounded of: *in*, *over*, *out*, *under*, *up*, *fore*, *with* and *gain*; with the exception of *gain* all have the accent on the fundamental word: inbré-athe, inlóck (*in* is frequently hardly to be separated from the Latin *in*) overáwe, overcárry; outáct, outpáce; underbéar, understánd; updráw, upgrów; foredó, forejúdge, but fóreimáagine; withdráw, withstánd; on the other hand gáinsay, gáinstand, gáinstrive.

Parasyntetha follow the accent of nouns: óutlaw: to óutlaw; óutline: to óutline; fórward: to fórward.

2) of Non-germanic particles:

Here the Romance, that is, those particles originally Latin, coming mostly through the French, come under consideration, in addition to which the Greek particles, likewise partly passing through the Latin and the French, deserve mention.

- "a) In compound **nouns** the principles of Germanic and of Latin accenting cross each other (in regard to the open penultimate or to that closed and long by position, even in regard to its vowel when long by nature) as well as the French, which applies the accent to the last full syllable. It is readily understood that those terminations which do not allow the accent to go beyond a certain syllable in simple words, are also the standard here.

The **Romance prepositional** particles therefore chiefly follow the law of Germanic ones, if the fundamental word is a **monosyllable**, or the last syllable is a glib short one, (as in *ble*) and have the accent upon the particle.

Substantives: index, insect, instinct, édict, éffort, ábstract, ábsciss, ádvent, énsign, óffice, rélic, réfuge, préface, próverb, tréspass, cómfort, cóncord, cóllege, cóunsel; with disyllable particles: interlude, interdict, interreign, ánteroom, ántetemple, circumstance, súperflux, c'nt radance, cóunter scarp; but intróit.

Adjectives: implex, instant, absent, abject, adverse, affable, prostrate, distant, convex, constant; with disyllabic particles: circumspect, superfine.

But monosyllabic fundamental words often have the accent, not only when they remind us of French ones, as affair, affront, degré, défense, desire, defeat, retrait; adroit, oblique &c.; but many preserve, especially in the final syllable closed with a double consonant, their original accent: compare. **Substantives:** event, excess, abscess, annex, affect, concert, defect &c.; with several prefixes: antepenult; **Adjectives:** exempt, adult, attent, abrupt, occult, conjunct, corrupt &c. often coinciding with verbs of like sound, although otherwise distinguished from these by the accent (see below). Sometimes a vowel originally long is maintained under the accent, as in the adjectives: complète, attrite, contrite, concise, connate, acute, obtuse, abstruse &c.

With disyllabic fundamental words the particle commonly has the accent with an open penult: **Substantives:** effigy, company; remora; avenue, retinue; implement, excrement; accolent, incident; reference, reticence; affinage; appetite; abature; assuetude; — circumference &c. **Adjectives:** expletive, apposite; immanent, competent; assonant, corrugant; adequate, accurate; obvious, absonous, depilous; absolute; — intercalary, circumfluent, circumfluous &c. With disyllabic prefixes a syllable long by position in the antepenult keeps the accent.

Length by position in the vowel of the penult mostly hinders the recession of the accent: **Substantives:** delinquent, appellant, apprentice, depéridit, adventure, adolescence &c. **Adjectives:** adnascent, decumbent, abundant, retentive, extramundane, intercommon, interfulgent, antemundane. The originally long vowel of the penult also sometimes retains the accent: exponent, apparent, imprudent, interlucant, impánate (Latin panis); yet a short vowel also is often erroneously lengthened: affábrous (Latin affáber), complácent (Latin pláceo); circumjácent (Latin jáceo); even a short vowel lengthened: concóLOUR (Latin concolor).

Yet even the position of consonants is often not heeded: antecúrsor, antechápel, antechámber, confessor, rencounter, intellect (intel = inter).

Fundamental words of more than one syllable leave the accent on the prefix, according to the principles obtaining for simple words, as conditory, consistory, expletory, éxplicable, ápplicable &c. Derivatives from verbs retain the verbal accent, as far as possible.

Among the rest of the Romance particles the negatives *in, non, ne, bene, male, rice, bi, ambi, demi, semi*, and the like, are to be remarked.

in is in general unaccented: *immúnd*, *imprúdent*, *im-matúre*, *incorréct*, *ignóble* &c. It is accented in *im-potent*, *impudent*, *indolent*, *innocent*, *impious*, *infinite*, *infidel*, and the substantives *infant*, *inscience*, mostly according to the Latin mode. On the other hand *non* readily takes the principal accent: *nón-age*, *nón-claim*, *nón-sense*, — *nón-aged*; *Nonchalánce*, *non-paréil* are accented in the French manner. *ne* may receive the accent in nouns, for instance *négligent*, *négative*. *bene* and *male* are treated as integral portions of the word and take the accent with a regard to the more general laws: *bénéfit*, *bénédict*, *bénéfice* (but *benéficient*, as well as *maléficient*, *malévolent*, *maléfic* &c.), *málefice*, *máltalent*; (in *málecontent* *e* is mute), *málefáctor*. *vice* has the accent only in *viceroy* and *viscount* &c. *derr. bi*, *demí*, *semi* readily take the accent, as *bífid*, *bigamy*; *démigod*, *démidévil*, *sémicircle*, *sémicólon* &c.; but let it pass on to the fundamental word, in consequence of the influence of position and termination upon the fundamental word: *bicórnous*, *bidéntal* on account of position, *biángulous*, *sémiánnular*; but also *biquádrate* &c. *ambi* and others hardly come under consideration: *ámbi-déxter*, *ámbiguous* obey the well known influence.

Particles originally Greek are on the whole to be treated from the points of view which are good for the Romance particles.

Monosyllabic fundamental words: *éclogue*, *méthode*, *próem*, *problém*, *symptom*; with a disyllabic prefix: *épitaph*, *ánagram*, *ápophthegm*, *métaphrase*, *périod*; yet *eclipse*.

Disyllabic fundamental words: *écstasy*, *prótasis*, *syncope*; with disyllabic prefix: *anástrophe*, *antípathy*, *metábasis*, *hypótenuse*. The accent does not readily go beyond the antepenult; yet sometimes in open syllables after the accent: *ántinomy*. Length by position often operates in the penult: *apóstle*, *metacárpal*, *metalépsis*; yet even here it is neglected: *párerger*, *ánecdote*, *ánalepsy*. An originally long vowel of the penult has the accent in disyllables and polysyllables (see above on the terminations *éma*, *ésis* and *osis*): *dioráma*, *anacolúthon*.

But among the prepositional particles following the same rules the alpha privative (*á*) is to be noticed, which is wont to keep the accent fixed: *áamazon*, *átimy*, *átheist* and *ágaláxy*, *átaráxy*.

Prefixes, such as *eu*, *dys* and *archi* are felt and accented as decidedly determinent words: *éulogy*, *éupathy*, *éucharist*, *éuthanasia*; *dýsphony*, *dýsury*, *dýsenteria*, *dýsury*, *dýsenteria*, *dýsorexia*; *árchitect*, *árchitrave* &c.; although length by position in the penult operates, even here: *eurithmy*, *eupépsy*, *dysópsy*. The prefix *archi*, (*arch*, *arche*) which has passed through even the Anglosaxon

as well as the French, is likewise subject to this influence: archángel, archbishop; is however else unaccented: archdúke, archdéacon, archénemy, archipélago.

ββ) With verbs the endeavour to accent the fundamental word is predominant.

This is most clearly exhibited in monosyllabic fundamental words: impél, illúde, abstérge, abhór, adórn, obtáin, recláim, perpénd, defénd, discérn, dený, seléct, transcénd. This is seldom departed from with a monosyllabic prefix, as in édit, rével (Old-French reveler, Latin rebellare, as distinguished from revél = to draw back) and those compounded of ferre: differ, óffer, próffer; pérjure, cónjure (as distinguished from conjúre), cónquer, trésspass. Even French words follow the rule: achieve, agist (mediaval-Latin agistare, adgistare from the French giste, gîte) and others. Even disyllabic prefixes commonly allow the accent to remain on the fundamental word, as *inter*, *intro*, *contra*, *super* &c., which content themselves with the subordinate accent: intercède, intercèpt, intromít, cóntrapóse, cóntradict, cóuntermánd, súperádd, súpervène; yet these sometimes draw the principal accent to themselves, particularly *ante* and *circum*, yet others also: ántedate, ántepone (except antecéde), círcumvént, círcumscribe, also *super* in súperpose, súperpraise, súpervive, *inter* in interlink and interpret, *contro* in cóntrovért and others.

The principal rule also obtains for verbs compounded of several particles: réappróve, récolléct and récolléct, récomménd, résurvéy, préexist, préconcéive, préconcért, déobstrúct, décompóse, disembárk, disannúl, súperexált, súperinspéct &c. A few withdraw themselves from it, as réconcile, récompense, récongnize.

Such parasyntheta as, although in an unaltered form, are derived from nouns, like círcuit, círcumstance do not belong here; although with many it remains doubtful whether they spring from a noun or from a Romance verb already derived from the noun as cómmerce (French substantive commerce, verb commercer) and many others. But the accenting of verbs upon the fundamental word is frequently opposed to the accenting of nouns, else of like sound, upon the prefix, as impáct, impórt, impréss, insúlt; essáy, escórt; exíle, expórt, extráct, absént, abstráct, abjéct, affix, accént; objéct; rebél, refúse, retáil, recórd, perfúme; présént, preságe, prémissé, préfix; protést, projéct; trajéct, transpórt; dígest, díscórd, detáil, desért, descánt; subjéct; compáct, compóst, compóund, complót; compréss; conféct, confíne, conflićt, convíct, convént, convóy, cóntést, cóntéxt, cóntráct, condíte, cóndúct, cóncért,

concrete, consort; collèague, collect; also with polysyllabic prefixes: interdict, countermarch and others.

Inversely, conformably with the genius of the language, substantives developed from verbs, are, in contradistinction to the latter, accented upon the prefix, as the substantives increase, assign, permit, produce, transfer, survey, conserve and the like; whereas parasyntetha (especially with further derivative terminations, otherwise follow their compound fundamental word.

Disyllabic and polysyllabic fundamental words are mostly stems further developed through assignable syllables of formation. Disyllables leave the accent on the syllable of the stem of the fundamental word: impéril, endánger, enrâpture, exhibit, extinguish, revisit, revómit, dismémber, disfúrnish, persevére (compare Latin persevero) &c. Those ending in *esce* have the accent upon this syllable: efflorésce, effervésce, acquiésce. But with disyllables and polysyllables a regard to the open or close penult is sometimes manifested. Thus verbs in *ate*, with an open penult, have the accent on the antepenult, whether this makes the prefix or not; yet, when the penult is long by position, on the latter: déviate, récreate, ággregate, cónsecrate; expátriate, emásculate; on the other hand deálbate, restágnate, averrúncate. Even here the original length of the open penult is sometimes regarded and accented: instáurate, impānate, delírate, delíbate, despumate, súperfétate &c. Verbs in *ute* partly follow this principle: éxecute, prósecute; on the other hand attribute, contribute. Verbs in *ize, ise* mostly have the accent on the syllable of the stem of the fundamental word: inthrónize, denátionalize, disórganize, imbástardize; yet some with a disyllabic fundamental word leave the accent on the prefix: éxorcize, ádvertise. Óccupy follows the compounds of *fy*, as jústify &c.

Particles not prepositional are treated in like manner: biséct, impáir (on the other hand Adjective impair), ignóre but injure. Words like diplómate are parasyntetha.

B) Of the subordinate accent.

The Germanic simple words of the English tongue, which are mostly not amplified by compound derivational syllables, commonly comprehend the whole number of their syllables under one accent. Germanic compounds also, mostly consisting of monosyllabic words, have scarcely any prominent accent besides the principal one, as éarthnut, éarlap, éagle-eyed. Such comes out most clearly in non-Germanic, polysyllabic, simple or compound words. The immediate succession of a principal and subordinate accent or the reverse,

through which the word would be interrupted by a slight pause, is repugnant to the English language wherefore, disyllabic compounds almost always lose their subordinate accent. To the word *ámén* therefore, both syllables of which are accented, two accents, not discriminated as principal and subordinate, are attributed, whereby the word becomes monotonous. The subordinate is divided from the principal accent by at least one depressed syllable.

The subordinate accent is, in polysyllables, natural, and a physiological necessity; but the glibness of popular pronunciation produces in a series of syllables an unconscious syncope of the vowels, so that in words like *nécessary*, *nécessarily*, *nécessitousness*, *cústomable*, *cústomarily*, *erróneousness*, *abbréviatory*, *christianize* &c. the decided prominence of a syllable with a subordinate accent appears less needful.

The more elegant language, and artistic or oratorical delivery are richer in subordinate accents. The observing them has become the task of modern Grammarians and lexicographers. Here of course, much is conventional.

In general the following principles may be established:

- 1) If an **derivative syllable** of a simple word, or a word compounded of an unaccented particle, requires the accent, the **principal accent** falls upon it; the **subordinate accent** then falls on the syllable of the stem originally accented, if the latter is separated by at least one syllable from the former: *cánnonáde* from *cánnon*, *hálberdíer* from *hálberd*, *lápidátion* from *lápidate*; *élémentál* from *élément*; *músculáritý* from *múscular*; *sérpentárius* from *sérpent*; — *remémorátion* from *remémorate*. It may however be separated by two syllables from the subordinate accent: *cáricatúre*, *remúnérabilitý*, *irrévocabílitý*.

If the syllable of the stem comes immediately before the syllable of the principal accent, the subordinate accent may hit a **prefix**: *énervátion*, *ádmirátion*; but if the primitive had already thrown its accent upon a derivative form, the subordinate accent then recedes to the **proper** syllable of the stem: *élastícitý* (from *elástic*), *lámentátion* (from *lamént compare láméntable*). However the accent does not go beyond the previous third syllable long by position; hence *iráscibilitý* from *irásçible*. In general, two syllables before the principal accent cannot remain without a subordinate accent.

- 2) If the **principal accent** falls upon the **syllable of the stem** of a simple word or the accented syllable of a word compounded of an accented prefix, a syllable of derivation separated therefrom by at least one syllable receives the subordinate accent, unless a series of unaccented and chiefly open syllables permits an even gliding of the stems, wherefore only more sharply prominent terminations require an accent. Here belong especially the terminations *áted*, *átor*, *átory*, *átrix*, *átire*, *áster*, *ócre* and other endings encumbered with more syllables: *lámellátéd*, *cúspidátéd*, *lánceolátéd*, *émulátor*, *grátulátory*, *médiá-*

trix, nūncupative, mūltiplicative, administrative, mēdicaster, médiocre, obsoleteness, advertiser, advertising &c.

- 2) As far as particularly regards compound words, the subordinate accent becomes prominent in the compounding of notional words, only where the fundamental or determinant does not appear to be monosyllabic, although the weight of the fundamental word is especially effective; hence: bārber-mónger, pēnnywóorth, hālfpennywóorth, bārgemáster, pēpperbóx, pēpper-gingerbread, cūstomhóuse and many more; on the other hand also certainly hāndkerchief and hāndiwork, and many other suppressions of the subordinate accent. It is also to be remarked that the compounding of a polysyllabic substantive with a subsequent proposition gives the latter the subordinate accent; as hānger-ón.

Polysyllabic nouns compounded of polysyllabic Germanic prepositions likewise receive the subordinate accent: āfteráges, ūnderwórker, ōverbálcence. With a monosyllabic fundamental word the language also leans towards the accenting it, yet not always decidedly, as in ūndergrówth, ōvermátc and the like.

In substantive forms, as hūrly-búrly, títile-tátile, the first part of the conjunction is accented, yet occasionally the second also: linsey-wóolsey; as in the adverb híggledy píggledy.

Foreign compounds of nouns are to be treated according to the accent of the simple words: compare pnéumatólogy, méteorólogy, bēnefāctor, múriatíferous, plēnilúary; — bíbliomāncy, āristocrāt, āgriculture, hōmicidal.

In the compounding of particles with verbs, particles, according to the general law, have the subordinate prior to the principal accent. In compounding with several particles, the accent readily recedes to the third syllable before the principal accent: súper-exālt, mísunderstānd; as is also the case with similar nouns: ínapprehēnsible.

- 4) More than one subordinate accent occurs in derivative forms, which are based upon doubly accented forms: dísaaccommodation (disaccommodate), ímprescriptibility (imprescriptible).

It is to be observed, in conclusion, that rhetorical reasons may produce a departure from the usual accent. For instance, the reference to an opposition may demand the prominence of the stem instead of the termination: próbability and plāusibility (instead of -ility), or of the termination instead of the stem: debtór and debtés (instead of débtor); or of the prefix instead of the fundamental word: We see that the Autobiography does not so much misstate as únderstate (LEWIS); by which even to the simple notion its contrary, with an accented prefix, may be opposed: to use and misuse, to give and fórgive &c.

Variety of accent is, in English, mainly produced in common

life by the fluctuation between the principal and the subordinate accent. Modern Lexicography has deserved great credit for fixing the accent. The difference between the accenting of ancient and modern English lies chiefly in the limitation of the French pronunciation in the modern language. Yet other divergencies are found, for example, even in Spencer, Marlowe, Ben Jonson and Shakspeare, the frequent accenting of the particles *be*, *for* and *mis*, as well as of some Latin ones in verbs, as *con*, *pro*, which are no longer allowed; apart from the accenting of polysyllables, in which a divergence has arisen in accenting the penult and the antepenult. Thus, in Shakspeare character, Lúpercal instead of *ch*aracter, *Lup*ercal &c.

II. The Elements of the Word according to their origin.

We have to do with the arising of the present elements of the English word chiefly from the Anglosaxon and the French. We are concerned with the preservation or the transmutation of old vocal signs which, only in a limited measure, preserve their old pronunciation.

The consonant ever remains in the course of time the more fixed element in writing and in sound; the vowel is more changeable. The treatment of the vowel conforms to more fixed principles in the accented than in the unaccented syllable, especially after the accented syllable, but otherwise before it. In no tongue has the system of sounds been so much disturbed in the course of time as in English; nowhere has the mutilation of the word down to a monosyllable proceeded so far; nevertheless the vocal hue of English has remained essentially Anglosaxon.

Origin of the vowels and Diphthongs.

The original Anglosaxon vocalization has suffered most, the Old-French less, that of modern words received from French and Latin, the least, which last we have not to treat in detail, although pronunciation often alters in many ways the hue of the vowel. The primitive quantities are effaced, the consonants and the position of the syllable in the word chiefly governing the quantity. The original length of the vowel is however often retained, being indicated by an mute *e*, either appended or preserved. Clear and obscure vowels are on the whole discriminated in accented syllables; in unaccented ones they easily pass into one another.

I answers

- a) in an accented syllable with the value of the Highdutch *i* with a short sound, chiefly to the short Anglosaxon *i* and *y*, sometimes to the broken *eo* and *e*, but also here and there to the long Anglosaxon *i*, *y*, *eo* and even *æ*.

Anglosax: *i*: in (Anglosax: in), if (gif), it (hit), with (við), ship (scip); give (gifan), liver (lifer); swim (svimman), win (vinnan), begin (beginnan), bid (biddan), spit (spittan), wit (witt, wit); inn (inn, in), will (substantive ville, verb villan), spill (spillan), thick (picce), hilt (hilt), milk (miluc, mile), swing (svingan), wink (vincjan), bitch (bicce), fish (fisc), silver (silfor, seolfer, sylfer).

Anglosax: *y*: thin (pynne), kin (cynn), sin (synn), trim trymman), hip (hype, hyppe), knit (cnyttan), hill (hyll, hill), kiss (cyssan), filth (fylð), dint (dynt), little (lytel, litel), kitchen (cycene), listen (hlystan), sister (svyster, suster), stir (styrjan), gird (gyrdan), birth (byrd), thirst (pyrstan).

Anglosax: *eo* often interchanged with *i* in Anglosaxon: silk seoloc, seolc), widow (veoduve).

Anglosax: *e*, likewise interchanged with *i* and *y*: brim bremme, brymme), grin (grennjan), bring (brengan along with bringan), think (pencēan, pengan along with pyncēan, pyncan, think), smirk and smerk (substantive smerc, verb smercjan).

Anglosaxon *i*: stiff (stif), rich (ric), nip (hnīpan), withy (viðig), witness (vitness), wisdom (visdōm).

Anglosaxon *ŷ*: wish (vŷscan), fist (fŷst), which (hvŷlic).

Anglosaxon *eō*: sick (seōc, siōc, sŷc).

Anglosaxon *æ*: whiffle (væflan, Old-norse veifla), riddle (rædels).

Old-English here often puts *e* in the place of the sound proceeding from the short *i*, as yeve (give), leve (live, anglosax: libban, lifjan), seluer (silver) &c.; on the other hand *u* instead of the *i* arising from *y*, *ŷ*: hull, gult, cussede (kissed), yfulled (filled, Anglosax: fyllan), wuche (which), fust, luper (Anglosax: lyðer) &c.; but often *y* instead of *i*: hym, ys, yt, tyn, mydde, brynge &c.

The French often presented *i* in a final accented syllable (ie) An accented *i* in words originally French mostly appears accented in modern English. Here *i* stands in the place of the French *i*, *e*, and even *a* and *u*. The vocalization is often fashioned after the Latin.

Old-French *i*: issue (Old-French the same), history (histoire, estoire), cinque (cinc. cinque), city (cite), pity (pite, pitie), vigour (vigor, vigur), mirror (mireor), dinner (digner, disner), river (riviere), vermilion (compare vermilier) so frequent in modern words.

Old-French *e*, also interchanging with *i*: chivalry (chevalerie), chimney (cheminee and chimenee), cinder (cendre), virtue (vertu), circle (cercle), lizard (Modern-French lézard), frigate (Modern-French frégate), abridge (abréger), skirmish (eskermir). The Old-English still often has *e*: chevalerie, chevalrous, vertue &c. Print points to an Old-French *ei* (preindre, priendre); mistresse, Old-English maystres to *ai* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), mastres (SKELTON).

Old-French *a*: fringe (frange, mediæval-Latin *frigia*, Old-English *frenge*), crimson (French *cramoisi*, Italian *carmesino*, *cremisino*).

Old-French *u*: ribbon (French *ruban*); bittern (*butor*), perhaps also *sirloin* (*surlonge*) and *surname* (*sur-*). Compare the reverse *umpire* (perhaps properly *impair*) Old-English noun *pere* (PIERS PLOUGH.) from the Old-French *peer*, *pair*, *par*. Provincially *u* often becomes *i*, for instance in Cheshire.

In the **unaccepted** syllable it mostly proceeds from the Germanic and French, as well as Latin *i*, in prefixes as well as in terminations, yet here representatives of many other obscure, particularly Romance vowels occur, for instance of *ā*. Wicliffe, Anglosax: *Viglāf*. *i* stands along with *u*, as well as in Anglosaxon in the termination *ing*, beside *ung*, English only *ing*: *ēbbing* (*ebbung*) &c. and otherwise: *dévil*, Anglosax: *deóful*, -ol, *deófl*, ostrich, French *autruche*; often instead of a Romance *e*; *súmmit*, Old-French *som*, *sum*, modern-French *sommet*, *rétinue*, Old-English *retenue*; instead of *ei* and *ai* (in Old-French often *i*. *e*): *vénison*, Old-French *veneison*, *venison*; *chánfrin*, French *chanfrein*; comparison, French *comparaison*; *órison*, Old-French *orison*, -eson, -eison; *benefit*, Old-French *bienfait*, -fet; instead of *oi*: *parish* (*paroisse*); *anguish* Old-French *angoisse* and *anguisse*; instead of *a*: *hurricane*, Spanish *huracan*; *capárison*, French *caparaçon*; instead of *ou*: *cartridge*, French *cartouche* &c.

- b) The diphthong *i*, foreign in sound to the Anglosaxon as well as to the English even down to the 14th century (see *ei*) illustrated by J. Wallis in the 17th by the sound of the French *pain*, *main*, arises in the accented syllable primarily out of the Anglosaxon *i* and *ý*, but then also passing over into *i* out of *i* and *y*, especially before certain Anglosaxon consonants *c*, *g*, *nd*, *ld*, *ht*, as well as mostly before *gh*, *ght* (Anglosaxon *h* and *ht*) also *eó*, *eá* and *eo*, *ea* and *i*.

Anglosaxon *i*: time (*tíma*), wine (*vín*), while (*hvíl*), wipe (*vípjan*), wife (*víf*), drive (*drifan*), write (*vritan*), ride (*rídan*), writhe (*vritan*), wise (*vís*), ice (*ís*); like (*líc*), iron (*íren*), idle (*ídel*), light (*líht* also *leóht*, *láht* = *levis*), light *líthan* = *levare*).

Anglosaxon *ý*: de-file (*fýlan*), mire (*mýre* = *palus*) and *mire*, pismire (*mýre*, Old-norse *máur*), fire (*fýr*), hide (*hýd*), bride (*brýd*), hithe (*hýd* = *portus*), lice (plural *lýs*).

Anglosaxon *i*: under influence of *c* and *g*: *I* (*ic*), Friday *Frigedæg*, nine (*nigon*); before *nd*: bind (*bindan*), find (*findan*), wind (*vindan*) but not wind (*vind* = *ventus*) *c*. der.; grind (*grindan*), hind (*hind* = *cerva*), behind (*bindan*), blind (*blind*); on the other hand hinder (*hinderjan*); before *ld*: mild (*mild*), wild (*vild*), child (*cild* or *cíld*) yet the plural *children*; see pronunciation; before *ght*: sight (*siht*), right (*riht*), plight (substantive *plight*, verb *plightan*), dight (*dihhtan*), Wight (*Wíght*): — but also *píne* (*pinn*, *pin*, yet Latin *pinus*), *ívy*,

Anglosaxon *iſig*, Old-Highdutch *epfi*, *ephi*; and *clīm b* (climban, Old-English and Scotch *climen*).

Anglosaxon *y*: before *nd*: mind (*mynd*), kind (*cynd*), but not in compounds kindred; yet also brine (*bryne*); before *ht*, English *gh*: fright (*fyrthu*), wight (*viht*, *vuht*), wright (*wyrtha*).

Anglosaxon *eó*, *eo*: file (*feól*), tithe (*teóða*); before *gh* and *ght*: thigh (*peóh*), sigh (compare *seófan*), light (*leóth* = *lux*), bright (*beorht*, *bryht*), fight (*feohtan*).

Anglosaxon *ea*, *ea*: nigh (*neáh*, *nēh*), high (*heáh*); might (*meaht*, *miht*), night (*neaht*, *niht*).

Hight belongs to *hātan*, *hēht*; the obsolete pight to the Anglosaxon *pyccan*, *pycte*. Compare the Old-English *Benedight* (CHAUCER).

The employment of the *i*, taken from the Romance, Latin and Greek languages, is without principle; original length is seldom the reason of its being a diphthong, its position in the word alone decides. Yet a primitive *i* commonly lies at the root. Compare *entīre*, Old-French *entir*, *entier*; *requīre*, Old-French *querre*, *quierre*, *quirre*, Old-English *requere* (CHAUCER), *squīre*, Old-French *escuier*, *esquier*, Old-English *squier*; *ivory* (*ivoire*), *primary*, *library* &c.; *crime*, *vice*; yet *i* also sometimes rests upon *e*, *ai*: *giānt*, *jaiant*, Modern-French *géant*, Old-English *geaunt* (MAUNDEV.), *reprisal*, French *représaille* &c., even upon the Old-French *u*: *contrive* (*truver*) see *ie*. *i* has the same relation to the Cymric *u*, which has nearly the same sound as the French *u*, in *kite*, Cymric *cŷd*, *cŷt*, Anglosaxon *cita*, *cyta*.

In the unaccented syllable an originally long *i* is sometimes preserved, as *i*, as in *féline* (Latin *felinus*), *bóvine* and the like; else the diphthong is even here determined by its position in the word.

Ie in the accented syllable;

- a) with the *i*-sound in the close syllable in Germanic words is almost always rendered in Old-English, by *e*, instead of:

Anglosaxon *eó*: *lief* (*leóf*), *fiend* (*feond*, *fiend*), *thief* (*peóf*), *priest* (*preóst*); — *friend* (*freond*, *friend*) with altered sound; Old-English *fend*, *frend*.

Anglosaxon *i*: *field* (*field*, *fēld*), *shield* (*scild*, *soēld*), *sieve* (*sife*); Old-English *feld*, *scheld*.

Anglosaxon *ē* (*ŷ*), *e* (*γ*): *believe* (*gelēfan*, *-lŷfan*), *wield* (*gevyldan*, *-veldan*), Old-English *leven*, *beleven*, *welden*; also *i*: *shriek*, Old-norse *skrikja*.

Old-French *ie*, along with *e*, often lies at the root: *cap-a-pie* (*piet*, *pie*), *niece*, *piece*, *grief*, *fief*, *brief*, *chief* (Old-French the same), *tierce* (*tiers*, *tierce*), *fierce* (*fier*, [*fiers*]), *cierge*, *bier* (*biere*, *bierre*), *cavalier*, *arquebusier* &c., *achieve* (*achever*, *achiever*), *besiege* (*assieger*, *asseger*), *grieve* (*grever*, *grief*), *pierce* (*percer*, *perchier*), Old-English *chevetain* (*chieftain*), *acheven*, *assegen*, *percen* &c.

Old-French *i*: *liege* (*lige*), *frieze* (*frize*), *mien* (*mine*).

Old-French *u*: (Modern-French *ou*): retrieve (*trouver*, *trouver*, *reprieve* (*repruver*). Old-English has here commonly *e*, where Modern-English mostly chuses *o*: *preven*, *re-preven*, *meven* (Old-French *muevre*, *movoir*), *ameven*, *re-meven*, *keveren* (*cover*); thus also the Old-Scotch. The Diphthong *i* (æ) has been exhibited above in *contrive*.

Many *ie* are to be distinguished from the above as two vowels, both in the accented and in the unaccented syllable, as in *acquiesce* &c.; forms like *pítied*, *countries* (with silent *e*) &c.; *orient*, *alien* and the like.

- b) *ie* sounds with the diphthong *i* in the open syllable of the stem, in Germanic words, under the influence of a following original *c*, *g*, instead of:

Anglosaxon *i*, *ea*, *y* (*g*): *lie* (*licgan*, *liggan*, *ligēan*), *vie* (*vigjan*, *viggan*), *hie* (*higjan*), *die* also *dye* (*deágjan* = *tingere*), (*yet die* = *mori* is Old-norse *deyja* to *divan*); *tie* (*têgean*, *týgan*, even the Anglosaxon *týan*, *tian*); otherwise stems of this sort end with the English *ŷ*, (*ŷe*) sound. *ie* also arises by inflection out of *ŷ*: *flies* and thus in Romance words *cries* &c., also in derivatives, as *fiery* (*fiŷe*).

Old-French *ie* is a diphthong in *pie* (*pica*); *i* in *fie* along with *fy* (compare the Old-English *fyen* = to say *fy*!); *e* in *die* plural *dies* and *dice*, Old-English *dis*, *dees*, *deys*.

ie in *brifer* and *ta* in *fríar* are to be taken as broadenings of an Anglosaxon *é* and a French *e* (è) before *r*: *brêr*, *brær*, French *frere*, Old-English the same. They have become disyllables: compare *fiery* from *fire*.

Y stands in words of Germanic, Romance and Latin-Greek origin, yet only in Germanic words at the end.

- a) as a diphthong it arises out of:

the Anglosaxon *l* and *ŷ*: *mŷ* (*mîn*), *thŷ* (*pîn*); with following *g*: *stŷ* (*stige* = *hara*); *whŷ* (*hvŷ*, *hvê*, *hû*); *skŷ*, Old-norse *skŷ*, compare Anglosaxon *scuva*, *scûa* = *umbra*.

Anglosaxon *eó* (*g*, *h*): *flŷ* (*fleógan*), *flŷ* (*fleóge*), *shŷ* (*sceóh*), *slŷ* (Swedish *slug*); *frŷ* (Old-norse *frió*, *fræ*, Old-French *fraye*).

Anglosaxon *i* and *y* under cooperation of a following *g*: *bŷ* (*big*, *bi*, *bê*) unaccented *be*, Old-English *be* and *bi*, *dry* (*drygge*, *drŷ*); in *buŷ*, where *u* stands idly, the same process takes place (*bycgan*, Old-English *buggen*, *byggen*, *bien*).

In the form *ye* it proceeds from *i*, *ea* (*g*) in *rŷe* (*rige*, *ryge*), *dŷe* (*deág*, *deáh*), Old-English substantive *deyer*; compare *Wye* (Latin *Vaga*) in Wales.

Old-French *i*, mostly before *e*, likewise gives *ŷ*: *trŷ* (*trier*), *crŷ* (*crier*), *affŷ* (*affier*), *denŷ* (*denier*), *defŷ* (*defier*), *frŷ* (*frire*, *freir*), *applŷ* (from *plier*, Old-French *appliquer*), *complŷ* (*com-plier*), *descrŷ* (*descrire*), *espŷ* (*espier*).

Old-French *e* (è), gives in the accented syllable sometimes *ŷ*: *supplŷ* (Modern-French *suppléer*).

A primitive *y* (v), which has passed through the Latin and French, mostly receives the diphthong sound through its position, as *týrant*, *cýpress*, *hýdromel* &c. See the pronunciation.

In the unaccented syllable the same is mostly good for the original *y*. The words in *i*: *fy* (*fier*) and *ply* (*plier*) have always the diphthong; *óccupŷ* (*occupier*), *próphesŷ* exceptionally.

- b) By far the most frequently a *y* not primitive becomes an unaccented *i*, especially in final syllables. It arises from:

the Anglosaxon *ig*: penny (*penig*, properly *pending*), body (*bodig*), busy (*bysig*), rainy (*rēgenig*, *rēnig*), twenty (*tventig*), bury (*byrigan*) &c.; so also lily (*lilje*, *lilege*), berry (*berje*, *berige*) &c.; it also interchanges with *ow*: holy (*hālig*) and *hāllow*, see *ow*, and is also developed out of the mere *g*: felly (*felg*) also fellow, Canterbury (*Cantvaraburh*, *burg*); so also out of *ie*: only (*ānlic*) &c.

Old-French *ie* and *e* (Modern-French *é*, *ée*) are transmuted in Modern-English into *y*; thus in verbs in *iēr*: *cárry*, *várry*, *stúdy*, *énvy*, *márry* (*carier*, *charier* &c.); in substantives in *ie*: *hóstelry*, *týranny*, *fáncy*, *chivalry* &c.; also in *i*: *mércy* (*mercit*, *merci*), *énemy*, *jolly*, as in *e* (*é*): *píty*, *cíty*, *chárity* &c.; in *ee*: *árry*, *jelly* (*gelée*), *duty* (Old-English *duetee*); in *ary*, *ory*, arising from *aire*, *oire* by transposition under Latin influence &c.; *nécessary*, *víctory* &c. Some of these *y*'s develope themselves out of *ai*, *ei* (*oi*), as *véry* (*verai*, Old-English *veray*, *verray*), *bélfry* (*belefreit*, *belefroí*). The Old-English frequently has *ie* instead of *ig*, *ie* and so forth. *hevie* (*héavy*); a *plashie ground* (NOMENCLATOR 1585). The *Cobler of Canterbury* (1590). *Fortie mark* (CITY MATCH 1639. p. 14.); *carien*, *studien*; *envie*, *hostelrie*, *chevalrie*, *victorie* &c., commonly even down to the 16th and 17th centuries *dictionarie*, *historie*, *phantasie*, *societie* &c.; instead of *e* (*é*, *ée*) frequently *ee*: *pítee*, *charítee*, *solempnítee*; also perhaps a mere *e*: *cíte*, *píte* &c.

In Latin-greek words a primitive *y* is often in part an accented, in part an unaccented *i*: *týranny*, *lýric* &c. *Egypt*, *análysis* &c.

E is divided unequally into the predominant short and long sound. Primarily

- a) in the accented syllable a short *ē* mostly developes itself out of the same vowel, thereby proving itself to be the most fixed vowel of those tongues which are the basis of English. It arises out of

the Anglosaxon *e* and *ē*, whether these point to an original *a* or *i*: *den* (*dene*, *denn*), *wen* (*venn*), *wren* (*vrenna*), *sell* (*sellan*, *syllan*), *step* (*steppan*), *neb* (*nebb*), *net* (*nett*), *bed* (*bedd*), *bench* (*benc*), *rest* (*rest*, *räst*), *merry* (*merh*, *mirig*); *well* (*vēla*, *vēl*), *get* (*gētan*, *gitan*), *melt* (*mēltan*, *miltan*), *seld*, *seldom* (*sēld*, *seldan*); *nest* (*nist*, *nēst*), *self* (*silf*, *sēlf*, *seolf*), *fennel* (*finul*, *fēnol*), *pepper* (*pipor*, *peopor*, *pēpor*), *fetter* (*feotur*, *fētor*).

Anglosaxon untransmuted *i* and *y* seldom give the Engl. *e*: *desk*, *beside dish* (*disc*), *sheriff* (*scirgerefa*), *welcome* (*vilcume*, verb *vilcumjan*); — *elder* (*ylder*), *kernel* (*cyrnel*), *whelk* (*hvylda*, *fledge* (*flycge*).

Anglosaxon eo, interchanging with i in: herd (heord, hiord), seven (sēofon, siofun, syfon), Fredrick (Freoðoric, freoðo alongwith friðu), her (hire, heore).

Anglosaxon a and ā: pebble (pabol), produced in where (hvar, hvār); egg (æg), elf (ālf, elf, ylf), Alfred (Ālfred), less (lās), Old-Engl. ware (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), lass; and ea: belch (bealcjan), stern (stearn), Berkshire (Bearrucscir); even ā: emmet (āmæte, āmēte). In Old-English and dialectically e often takes the place of a: esp, exle, extre. (LYDGATE) = axletree, edder &c. See A.

Anglosaxon æ passes here and there into ē: errand (ærende), erst (ærest); produced in ere (ær), there (þær, þēr); were (være, væron), ever (æfre), never (næfre, nēfor), wet (væt), let (lætan = sinere), wrest (vræstan), wrestle (vræstljan); Old-English arande, pare, wrastle, arst; even or instead of ere; ye war, ware often in Skelton.

Anglosaxon ē rarely: reck (rēcan = curare), reckless (rēceleās), bless (blētsjan, blēssjan).

Anglosaxon eā in red (read, reod), Edmund, Edgar, Edwin (Eādmund &c.); on the other hand Eadbert (Eādberht) and in the unaccented syllable -less (lēas = less).

Anglosaxon eō: in devil (deōful), theft (peōf, pýf).

Anglosaxon o and ô is also found rendered by e in welkin (volcen) and Wednesdāy (Vōdnesdæg), Wednesbury (Vōdnesbeorh), Old-English walkne.

Among the French elements e is, with regard to its place in the word, the basis of the short ē, as also the e of other tongues. Old-French e: gem (gemme, yet Anglosaxon gimm), repēt (repentir), regrēt (regreter), clef (the same), err (errer), serf (the same); clērgy (clergie), remēbrer (remember); also in the open syllable: séveral (the same), béverage (the same), ténant (the same), précieux (precious, -us) &c.

Old-French a, which, before the nasal, interchanges with e even in Old-French: trench (trancher and trencher), merchant (marcheant), Old-English marchant, as clerk and serjeant assume an a, at least in pronunciation.

Old-French ei, ai, ie, which likewise interchange with e: ves-sel (vaissel, veissel, vessel), pledge (pleige, plege), secle (siecle, secle).

Old-French i: cemetery (cimetiere), sketch (Frenchesquisse), lemon (limon), level (Italian livello), Ex (Latin Isca) a river in Devonshire.

e seldom takes the place of oi: perry, French poiré; or u: ferret, French furet, to the Latin fur.

In the unaccented syllable before the accent e mostly arises out of e: on the other hand it is weakened down to a glib ē, after the accented syllable out of all Germanic and Romance vowels. Examples are everywhere to be met with, even apart from the organic, silent e. Thus e stands in the place of the Anglosaxon a, o, u: ánswer (andsvarjan), ráther (raðor),

éarnest (eornost), fénnel (finul, -ol); even Anglosaxon takes the lead in this weakening; compare Anglosaxon hungur, -or, -er, English húngr; Anglosaxon endlifum, -eofun, -efen (Dative), English eleven and so forth. Old-French *i*, *ei*, *ai*, *ie*, *oi*, *a* &c. give *e*: kénnel (chenil), gárret (garite), cóurtesan (courtesane), cóunsel (conseil, consel, consol), márvel (merveille, mervoile), mittens (mitaine), súdden (sudain), trável (travailler, traveiller), póitrel (poitrail), mánnér (maniere); so máttér, ríver &c. cóvet (covoiter, coveiter), hárnass (harnas, harnois), mánger (mangeoire), Bénnet (Benoit), scárlét (escarláte), chállenge (chalonger, challenger) &c. Old-English often reverts or approximates to the old vocalization: hongur, lengur, betur (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), conseil, merveillous, curteisie, sodayn, sodeyn (the latter even in Skelton), Beneit.

- b) as a long *e* with the *i*-sound, *e* stands in modern-English mostly in non-Germanic words in the open syllable (see pronunciation).

The Anglosaxon *e*, *ē* has partly this sound in the open syllable: hē (hē), mē (mē), wē (vē), yē (gē), ēven (ēfen), ēvil (yfel, eofel, ēfel and ēbul), metre (mēter), fēver (fēfer, compare French fièvre), bēsom (bēsma); the older spelling is hee, mee &c., as even now thee (pē), often to distinguish the accented from the unaccented pronoun:

Also the Anglosaxon *æ*: ēve, ēven, ēvening (æfen), these (pās, gen. pissas, Old-English this, thise); eā and ē: ēke (Conjunction eac, êc, Substantive eāca, verb êcēan, êcan); and eó: be (beón).

Wherever *e* appears lengthened in an open syllable, it rests upon a Romance, Latin-Greek *e* (also a primitive *ae*, *oe*), and preserves or gains its length in great part by its position in the word: compare *sevēre*, *scēne* with *gēnius* (genius), *pēriod* (périodus). *Demēsne*, also *demaine*, points to the French *ei*, *ai* (demeine, demaine).

In the unaccented syllable *e* inclines to the *i*-sound, more in the open than in the close syllable; Latin *e* in the termination *es* (Latin *ēs*) preserves the length: *ambágēs*.

Ee is chiefly the representative of the lengthened *e* and shares with *ea* the long *i*-sound. In Old-English *ee* frequently stands instead of the *ea* now in use: *leef* (leaf), *heep* (heap), *heeth* (heath), *feet* (feat), *deen* (dean) PIERS PLOUGHM., perhaps with the sound *ē*, as it was even in the 17th century. But a simple *e* likewise stands in an open syllable or with a mute *e* after it: *meke* (meek), *sene* (seen), *quene* (queen), *wele* (wheel), *wepen* (weep), *seken* (seek), *kepen* (keep), *knelen* (kneel), but also before other syllables beginning with a consonant *fredom*, and *ben* (been).

It especially answers to the Anglosaxon *ē* as the modification of *ō*: *feel* (fēlan), *keel* (cēlan), *seem* (sēman = *judicare*, compare *sōm* Substantive), *green* (grēne), *queen* (cvēn), *weep* (vēpan), *keep* (cēpan), *meet* (mētan), *sweet* (svēte), *speed* (spēdan), *feed* (fēdan), *sleeve* (slēf, slȳf), *geese* (gēs), *teeth* (tēd), *seek* (sēcan *soecan*),

beechen (bēcen); — sweep (to svāpan compare the Lowdutch swōpe).

To the Anglosaxon ē alongwith eá, commonly ea in Modern-English: need (neád, nēd, nŷd), leek (leác), reek (rēc, reác), cheek (ceáce, cēce), steep (steáp).

To the Anglosaxon æ mostly interchanging with ē: eel (æł), needle (nædl, nēdl), sleep (slæpan, slapan), sheep (scæp, scēp), seed (sæd), weed (væd), leech (læce, lēce), speech (spæc), greedy (grædig, grēdig), seely (sælig).

To the Anglosaxon eó frequently: bee (beó), flee (fleón, fleóhan), [compare be (beón)], tree (treó, trē), knee (kneó, kneóv), reel (hreól), wheel (hveól, hveovol), beer (beór), deer (deór, diór), steer (steóran, stióran, stýran), steer (steór = taurus), deep (deóp), creep (creópan), seethe (seóðan, sióðan), freeze (freósan, frýsan), fleece (fleós, flēs, flŷs), beetle (biótul, beótel, bētel, bŷtel).

To the Anglosaxon i: free (frí), three (prí), scere (scír and scære) and even

To the Anglosaxon i, ē, eo and u = Gothic i: shire (scire), thee (pē) see above e, fee (feoh), see (sēon), week (vice, veoce, vuce), Old-English woke, wyke (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER). Thus keeve, stands alongwith kīve, Anglosaxon cyf = cupa.

The Old-French e, particularly in an open syllable and where it interchanges with ei, ai and oi is often represented by ee: agree (agreer), degree (the same), careen (Modern-French caréner), cheer (chere, chiere) alongwith chear, chānticlēer (chantecler), peer (par, pair, per), peel (poiler, peiler, peler), Old-English secree (secreit, secroi); decree (decret), see (siez, se, sed), proceed, exceed, succeed alongwith recēde, precēde (proceder, succeder), discreet (discret), feeble (foible, Modern-French faible); thus also is the French termination e (atus) represented in abandonee and other names of persons, likewise in names of things: rappee (rapé). A regard to the Latin ē often prevails therewith: beet (French bette, Latin bēta, Old-highdutch bioza, bieza), spleen (splen) &c.

Also the French termination ier along with aire and ière in modern words, is often represented by eer, together with ier and er: pioneer, volunteer, career &c.

The Old-French i is often rendered thus in Modern-English: genteel (gentil), Old-English gentile; veer (virer), lee (lie), esteem (estimer), redeem (se rédimir) &c.

The Old-French oe, ue, modern French oeu: beef (boef, buief), Old-French o: fleet (flote or Anglosaxon flota = navis?) stand alone.

In the unaccented syllable, where it is rare, it rests upon the French é (ée): couchee, lévee, jéttee, cōffee, committee.

Ei and ey seem down to the 17th century to have had only the sound of a long ē, which is even now predominant; the Old-English often puts it in the place of the ai, now in use: feire (fair), seint (saint), pleyn (plain), heyre (hair), deys (dais), susteynen (sustain), pleyen (play), seyen (say); often also instead of the present diphthong i: heigh (high), neigh (nigh), deyen (die).

The *ei* in the middle of a syllable, rare in Germanic words, arises in the accented syllable, mostly before a succeeding *g* (*h*) out of:

the Anglosaxon *ǣ* (*æ*): their (*pāra*, *pæra*); — either, neither (*ǣhvāðer*, *ǣðer*, *ǣðer*, yet compare also *ǣghvāðer* and *nāhvāðer*) now sounding with *i*.

the Anglosaxon *ea*: eight (*eatha*, *ǣtha*, *ehta*).

the Anglosaxon *eá*: height *heáðeo*, along with *hīgh* (*heáh*) sounding *ei* and neighbour (*neáhbúr*) with *e*, along with *nīgh* (*neáh*), and heifer (*heáhfōre*, *heáfore*, *heáfre*) with a short *ē*.

the Anglosaxon *æ*: neigh (*hnægan*); and *ē*, *i*: weigh (*vēgan*), weight (*viht*). In sleight (to *slý*, Lowdutch *slû*, Swedish *slug*) *ei* again prevails.

In words originally French it mostly stands in the place of the Old-French *ei*, interchanging with *ai* and *ei*, partly with the *ē* sound: vein (*veine*), deign (*deigner*, *daigner*, *degner*), reign (*reigner*, *rainier* &c.), heir (*hoir*, *heir*), veil and vail (*voile*, *veile*), reins (*rein*, *rain*); partly with the *i*-sound: seize (*seisir*, *saisir*), seine (the same *sagēna*), leizure (*loisir*, *leisir*), receive, perceive, deceive, conceive (*rechoivre*, *rezoivre*, *perchoivre* &c. alongwith *recever*, *receveir*, *recivoir* &c.), therefore also receipt, deceit, conceit; ceil, (*sceiler*, *seeler* = *sigillare*, *figuris ornare*).

Instead of *ēi* and *ai*: obeissance, heinous (*haīnos*) compare Old-Engl. *heyne*.

For *e*: rein (*resne*, *regne*, Modern-French *rêne*); Latin *e*: in-veigh (*invehi*). Inveigle (with *i*) is said to have been corrupted from the Italian *invogliare*; perhaps out of the Old-French *avogler* = *aveugler*.

In the unaccented syllable *ei* arises out of the French *ai*, *ei*: *fōreign* (*forain*), *sōvereign* (*soverain*), *fōrfeit* (*forfait*), *cōunterfeit*, *sūrfeit*.

Ey, now likewise divided between *ē* and *i* is likewise rare in Germanic words. It arises in the accented syllable, in words originally Anglosaxon, mostly with the weakening of *g* into *i*, out of:

The Anglosaxon *ǣ* (*æ*): they, (*pā*), wey and weigh (*vāg*, *væg*).

The Anglosaxon *æ*: whey (*hvæg*), greyhound (*græghund*, *grêgh.*); on the other hand gray (*græg*); with *i*: key (*cæg*). Compare *bey*, Turkish *beg*.

In eye (*eage*) *ey* becomes *ei*; *eyeliad* (*œillade*), *eyelet* (*œillet*) are transformations into the Anglosaxon form.

Old-French *ei*, *oi* gives *ey*: prey (*preier*, *proier*, *prær* = *prædari*), trey (*trei*, *troi*, *trois*), convey along with convoy (*conveier*, *convoier*); obey (*obéir*), purvey, survey (*veoir*, *veeir*, *veer*); also *ai*: *eyry* and *ærie* (French *airée*).

In the unaccented syllable it answers to the Anglosaxon *ē* (*g*): *Rámsey* (*Rammesêge*), *Anglesey* (*Anglesêg*). *i* (*g*): *hóney* (*hunig*); compare *bárley* (*Cymric barllys*), Old-English *barly* (*MAUND.*); more frequently Old-French *ei*, *oi*: *móney* (*monoie*, *moneie*) *tóurnèy* (*tournoi*, *tornei*), *lámprey* (*lamproie*, Anglosaxon *lamprede*); *lákkey* belongs to *laquais*, Old-French also *laquet*; *ábbey* (Old-French *abbaye*); and Old-French *ee* (Modern-French *ée*): *álley* (*allée*),

gálley (galée, Old-French galie), válley (valee), jórney (jornee, jurnee), chimney (cheminee, chimenee), cáusey (chaussée); also **e** (é): attorney (atorne, medieval-Latin aturnatus); rarely Old-French ie: Túrkey, else y. Forms like moneie, valeie are still frequent in Old-English.

Ea, even in the 17th century representing the sound of the long **ē** in distinction to **ĕ** in the close syllable (meat and mēt) (J. WAL-LIS), now mostly long **i**, and besides short **ĕ**, without the carrying out of a principle, although resting principally on the Anglosaxon *ea*, is rendered mostly by *e* in Old-English in words originally Germanic and Romance: eche, shefe, ete, clene, weke, heren, beren, dede (dead), bever, reme (realm), reson, seson, grese, egles &c.; as well as also by *ee*: see (sea), Modern-English still affear and affeer, aread and areed, as bēdle and beadle. On the other hand in the 16th and 17th centuries it often takes the place of the English long and short *e* (*ē* and *ĕ*), where it has been subsequently abandoned. It represents in the accented syllable:

The Anglosaxon *ea* as **i**: flea (fleā), beam (beām), bean (beān), year (gēar, gēr), leap (hleāpan), leaf (leāf), leave (leāf = permissio), bereave (bereāfan), beat (beātan), east (eāst), beacon (beācen); — as **ē**: deaf (deāf), threat (preātjan), lead (leād), death (deāð); — as **ō**: great (greāt).

The Anglosaxon *æ* as **i**: sea (sæ and sēo), lean (læne), mean alongwith moan (mænan), heal (hælan), fear (fær), bleat (blætan), mead (mæd = pratum), sheath (scæð, sceād, scād), tease (tæsan), each (ælc), teach (tæcan), geason (gæsen), heathen (hæðen); — as **ō**: dread (dræd), thread (præd), breath (bræð), health (hæld), weapon (wæpen, vëpen), cleanse (clænsjan), early (ærlice).

The Anglosaxon *ē* as **i**: wheal also weal and wale, (hvêle = putredo), leave (lēfan, lýfan = permittere), hear (hêran, hýran), read (rēdan), weary (vêrig, vœrig); — as **a**: hearken (hêrcnjan, hýrcnjan).

The Anglosaxon *i* as **i**: cleave (clīfan), wreathe along with writhe (vrīðan).

The Anglosaxon *eó* as **i**: dear (deóre, diór, dýre), cleave (cleófan, clīfan), dreary (dreórig); — as **ē**: breast (breóst).

The Anglosaxon *ā* as **i**: pea (pāva), Old-English po, poo, in Skelton still pōhen; weak (vāc); — as **ō**: sweat (svāt), ready (from rād).

Not uncommon is its appearance for short vowels, as:

The Anglosaxon *e* as **i**: meat (mete, mett), leak (hlece = rimosus), wean (venjan), heave (hebban); — as **ē**: heavy (hefig), lengthened in swear (sverjan), wear (verjan).

The Anglosaxon *ē*, *ea*, *i* and *y* as **i**: meal (mēlu, meolo, melo), steal (stēlan), shear (scēran), spear (spēre, spēore, spiore), smear (Substantive smēru, verb smērvjan, smērvjan), eat (ētan), knead (cnēdan), mead (mēdu = mulsum), leak (Old-norse lēca = stillare, Anglosaxon leccan = irrigare), wreak (vrēcjan), lease (lēsan = colligere), beaver (bēfer, bēber, beofer); seal (sēolh, sēol, siol, syl = phoca), lean (hlinjan, hleonjan), beaker (Old-norse bikar, Medieval-Latin bicarium), seal (sigel), beadle (bydel); as **ō**: tread (trēdan),

weather (vēder), feather (fīðer, feoðer, fēðer), earl (eorl, ērl), earnest (eornost), earth (eorðe), learn (leornjan, liornjan), quern (cveorn, cvyrn), heaven (heofon); as a lengthened ē: bear (bēra), bear (bēran, beoran), pear (pēru), tear (tēran), break (brēcan); as a: heart (heorte), hearth (heorð).

The Anglosaxon *ea* also ð as ī: ear (āher, ear), beard (beard): as ð: pearl (pārl, pearl), earu (earnjan), meadow (meadu, mādu); as a: bearn obsolete, alongwith bairn, barn (bearn)

Old-French *ai*, *oi*, along with *ei* and *e*, become very frequently *ea* mostly as ī: clear (clair, cleir, cler), eagle (aigle), eager (aigre, eigre, egre), feat (fait), defeat, treat (traiter, compare Anglosaxon *thrahtjan*, *treahhtigēan*), plead (plaider), plea (plait from *plaiz*, *ples*), peace (paix, pais, pes), grease (graisse, gresse), lease (laisier, leissier, lessier), please (plaisir, plesir, plesir), appease (apaisier), treaty (traite), reason (raison, reson), season (saison, seison, se-son), feasible, obsolete faisible; pea (pois, peis? compare Anglosaxon *pisa*, *piosa*), mean (moien, meien), dean (doyen), increase, decrease (croistre, creistre, crestre); so also *ai*: treason (traison); — as ð: peasant (paissant), as pheasant (faisan), Old-English *fesaunt* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN).

Old-French *e* (Modern-French *é*, *è*, *ê*, *e*) as ī: zeal (zèle), demean (demener = to behave), appeal (apeler, Substantive *apel*, *apiel*), reveal (reveler), congeal (geler), conceal (celer), repeat (Modern-French *répéter*), cream (cresme), beast (beste), feast (feste), preach (precher, preeschier), peach (Modern-French *pêche*, Anglosaxon *pērsuc*), breach (breche), impeach (empescher, empeescher), cease (cesser), de cease (deces, dechies), tea (thé, Italian *tè*), beak (bec, Gaelic *beic*), feature (fature); also *ie* = *e*: arrears, arrearage (arier, ariere), Old-English *arrerage*; — as ð: search (cercher, *cherchier*), measure (mesure), treasure (tresor), leaven (levain).

Old-French *i* as ī: beagle (bible), league (ligue), peak (pic, pique); *i* along with *e*: treague (trive, treve, Italian *tregua* (SPENSER); as ð: treachery (tricherie, trecherie).

Old-French *a* as ī: glean (glaner, also glener), dialectically *glent* = gleaned; appear (apparoir, appareir), Old-English *apparence* (CHAUCER), *apparancy* (GOWER); — as ð: jealous (jalous and *engelus*), Old-English Substantive *jallowes*.

The Old-French *ea* has been preserved as ð in: realm (realme, *reaume*), yet Old-English also *resme* (MAUND.), *reme* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN).

In creature *ea* has been contracted as ī, as in: deacon *ia* (diaconus, yet even Anglosaxon *diacon*, *deacon*).

ea in an unaccented syllable, has rarely arisen, as it were out of the Anglosaxon *ē*, *i* (*g*): Anglesea along with Anglesey (Anglesēg), Chelsea (Ceolesēg); or French *e*: colleague; or an original *ea*: guinea.

EO with its various sounds does not stand in Germanic words; only *yeoman*, Old-English *yeman* (man pl. men) is a decidedly Anglosaxon substantive. According to Grimm *ye*, *yeo* is the prefix *ge* (contubernalis, minister); according to others *ye*, *yeo* = *young*; belonging perhaps to the Anglosaxon *geām* = *cura*, *attentio*, Anglosaxon

gýmend = gubernator, as it were *geámmann*. The Old-English has the verb *yemen* = to govern, to take care of and the substantive *yeme* (Anglosaxon verb *gēman*, *gýman* = custodire, curare). Does the dialectical *gemman* = nobleman belong also here?

Otherwise *eo* exists only in Romance words, although *e* after a guttural is a sign of the dental pronunciation; compare *dungeon* (*donjon*, *doignon*), *puncheon* (*poinçon*); or as an original vowel it forms a double syllable with a following vowel (*píteous*). It arises from *eo* in *Theobald* (*Tibald*, *Tyalt*), Italian *Teobaldo* = *Dietbold*; from *eu* (*ue*) in *people* Old-English *peple* (*pople*, *pueple*), *jeopardy* (*jeu parti*), Old-English *juperti* (WRIGHT *Dame Siriz* 13th century), *jeupertys* (GOWER); *ieu*: *feoff* (*fieu*, verb *fiever*, *fiefer*), *feod* along-with *feud* point to *feudum*, compare the Modern-French *féodal*.

Eu also occurs only in Romance and Latin-Greek words, except in *eugh* alongwith *yew* (Anglosaxon *eóv*), commonly from a primitive *eu*: *Europe*, *eunuch*, *zeugma*, *eunomy* &c., also *deuce*, (*doi*, *deus*); but whether also *deuce* (= *devil*), with which compare the Lowdutch *düker*, *deukert*? *Feud*, Anglosaxon *fæhð*, *fægð*, Old-French *faide* rests upon a confusion with *feudum*, as, conversely the medieval-Latin *faidium* instead of *feudum* is found. In the unaccented syllable *eu* often stands in the French termination *eur*: *grandeur* &c.

Ew, as a diphthong *iú*, rarely *ō*, often interchanges with *ú* (*iú*), as in *askew*, *askue*; *clew*, *clue*, *fewmet*, *fumet*; *fewel*, *fuel* &c. and rests particularly upon:

The Anglosaxon *eóv*: *brew* (*breóvan*), *chew* (*ceóvan*), *crew* = *multitudo* (*creóv*? Old-norse *krú*), the preterites *grew* (*greóv*), *blew* (*bleóv*), *knew* (*kneóv*), *threw* (*preóv*), *crew* (*creóv*); dialectically still *mew* (*meóv*), *saw* (*seóv*), = *ō*: *strew* alongwith *strow* (*strevjan*, *streávjān*, *streóvjān*, Gothic *straujan*); *eóg*: *tew* = *materials* (*teóg*); *iv*: *steward* (*stigeveard*, *stiveard*).

The Anglosaxon *eov*, *iv*; *ewe* (*eovu*, *eov*, *eavu*, *eav*), *new* (*nive*, *niove*, *neove*), *spew* (*speovjan*), *yew* (*eov*, *iv*), *lew* (*hleovjan* = *calescere*), *clew* (*clive*, compare the Lowdutch *klügen*); formerly *hewe*, *now* *hue* = *color* (*hiv*, *hiov*, *heov*); = *ō*: *saw* (*sivjan*, *seovjan* = *suere*).

The Anglosaxon *eáv*: *few* (*feáve*), *dew* (*deáv*), *thew* (SPENSER) (*peáv* = *mos*), *shrew*, *mouse* (*screáva*), *hew* (*heávan*); *flew* arises from *fleáh*, *flugon*, Old-English *flaugh*, *fley*.

The Anglosaxon *áv*, *æv*, *ōv* (*óg*, *ōh*): *rew* formerly alongwith *row* (*rāv*, compare *stáfræv*, *stáfrōv*), former preterite *snew* (*snáv*), *mew* (*máv*? *mæv*), *lewd* (*læved*, *lāved*, *lêvd*); *drew* (*dróg*, *drōgon*), *slew* (*slōh*, *slōgon*), Old-English *drogh*, *drough*, *drow*; *slogh* &c.

The Anglosaxon *av*, *ev* appear as *ew* in *shew* alongwith *show* with *ō* (*scavjan*, *sceavjan*, *scevjān*) and in the unaccented syllable in *sinew* (*sineve*). *W* proceeds from *f* and *b* in: *newt* along with *eft* (*efete*, *eft*), Old-English *ewt*, *evet*, and *Shrewsbury* (*Scrobbesburh*). *Ug* gives *ew* in the Old-English *Hew* instead of *Hugh* (Old-Highdutch *Hugo*, Anglosaxon *hyge* = *mens*) compare Modern-English *féverfew* = *febrifuge*.

In words originally Romance *eu* also often stands in an unaccented syllable, ever with the sound *iû*; in the accented and unaccented syllable it arises from *u*, with a preceding or following *e* or *i*, or from a mere *u* (*ou*).

Old-French *eu*, *ieu*: *fewel* along with *fuel* (*feu*, *fu*, *fou*, compare the Substantive *fouee*), *pewter* (*peutre*, medieval-Latin *pestrum*, *peutrum*), *sew* formerly along with *sue* (*sevre*, *seure* = *suiure*), Old-English *suwen*; often unaccented: *cûrfew* (*couvre feu*), *cûrlew* (*courlious*, *corliu*, medieval-Latin *corlivus*), *nephew* (*neveu*, Anglosaxon *nēfa*), *hebrew* (*hebreu*), Old-English *ebreu* (MAUND.), *Mátthew* (*Matthieu*); thus *Barthólomew*, *Andrew* &c. imitated; compare Old-English *maisondeue* (*maison dieu*). *Mew* answers to our *miauen*, but *mewl* points to the French *miauler*. *ev*, *iv* operates as in *iû*: *eschew* (*eschiver*, *escheveir*, compare Anglosaxon *sceoh*, Old-English *eschive* and *eschue*).

Old-French *ui* operates in *pew* (*pui*, *poi* = *podium*), *tewel* (*tuiel* = *tuyau*); thus also arose *Jew* (*juis*, *juif*, compare Anglosaxon *Judēas*), Old English *jewerie* (CHAUCER), Old-French *juierie*, *juerie*.

Old-French *u* (*ue*) also *ou*: *mew* (substantive *mue*, verb *muer*), *fewmet* along with *fumet* (*fumette*), Old-English *remewe* and *remue*, *salewe* and *salue*, *jewise* (*juise*); — *jewel* (*juel*, *joiel*, *joel*), Old-English *joweles* (CHAUCER), *Lewis* (*Louis*). *stew* substantive and *stew* verb perhaps belong primarily to the Old-French *estuve*, *bain*, Modern-French *étuver*; — *venew* (SHAKESPEARE) and *veney*, (*venue*), *view*, *interview* (*veue*).

The older language still presents many *ew*, as for instance, instead of *eg*: *flewme* = *phlegm*.

A, whose sound stands especially under the influence of consonants (see Pronunciation) has split itself into *ǣ*, *ā*, *ā* and *ē*, in Germanic words goes back to the short *a* sound, (Anglosaxon *a*, *ā* and *ea*) and borrows its accentual tinge essentially from the Anglosaxon *ā*, by the production of which the *ē*-sound seems to have arisen, whereas the Anglosaxon *a*-sound appears lengthened, particularly before a silent *l* and a sounded *r*. *e* certainly appears in Old-English, as well as in dialects instead of the Modern-English *a*, but particularly before *r* where the vowels rests, not upon *a* or *ā*, but upon *ea*, *eo*, *e*: *derk*, *yerde*, *merk*, *sterre* (*star*), *ferre*, *ferthing*, *kerven* (*carve*), *sterten*, *hereberwe*; also in Romance words: *gerlond* (*garland*), *merveillous*, *persone* (*parson*) &c. The partial transition into the *ā*-sound must have taken place early, the confusion of *a* with *o* having spread not only in Old-English and the dialects (*mony*, *lond*, *hond*, *strond*, *brond*, *stont* [*standeth*], *dysemol*), but appeared even in Anglosaxon, particularly before *m* and *n*, as in *grom*, *homm*, *gomen* [*game*], *monig*, *monn*, *vonn*, *sond*, *ongel* &c. (see above). In the accented syllable *a* arises from:

The Anglosaxon *a* as *ǣ*: *ham* (*hamm*), *man* (*mann*), *lap* (*lapjan*), *crab* (*crabba*), *have* (*habban*, *hābban*), *ass* (*assa*), *ashes* (*asce*), *lamb* (the same), *land* (the same), *ankle* (*ancleov*), *apple* (*appel*, *āpl*), *cast* (Old-norse *kasta*), *cag* (Old-norse *kaggi*); as *ā*: short in *wan* (*vann* = *pallidus*), long in *alder* (*alor*, *alr*); as *ē*: *lame* (*lam*),

bane (bana), ape (apa), late (late, lāte), make (macjan); ware (varu), stare (starjan).

The Anglosaxon *ā* as *ā*: can (cann), Alfred (Ālfred), sap (sāp), happy (hāpp), at (āt), glad (glād), mass (māsse), axe (āx, eax), waggon (vāgen); — as *ā*: water (vāter), small (smāl, smal, smeal); — as *ā*: path (pāð, pað), father (fāðer); — as *ē*: acre (ācer), acorn (ācern), grave (grāf).

Anglosaxon *ea* as *ā*: shall (sceal), mallow (mealva), fallow (fealu = flavus), mat (meatte), marrow (mearh), slack (sleac, slāc), wax (veaxan), flax (fleax); — as *ā*: all (eall, eal, al), fall (feallan), wall (veall, vall), gall (gealla), hall (healla), halt (healtjan); short in warm (vearm), warp (vearp); — as *ā*: salve (sealf), half (healf, half); arm (earn), dark (dearc, deorc), spark (spearca), starve (stearvjan), hard (heard), harp (hearpe); — as *ē*: ale (ealu), dare (dearr), chafer (ceafor), gate (geat, gat).

The short Anglosaxon *e*, *ē*, *eo* have often, especially before a following *r*, passed into *a*; *e* as *ā*: mantle (mentel), trap (treppe); Thames (Temese, yet also Tānese), mare (merihe, mere), share (scerjan, scirjan); as *ā*: mar (merran), marsh (mersc), tar (terjan, tirjan = vexare), Harwich (Herevic), harbour (hereberge); *ē* as *ā*: thrash alongwith thresh (prēscan), tatter (tēter), tar (tēru, teoru); as *ā*: swallow (svēlgan, svilgan); as *ē*: thane (pēgen, pēn), scrape (scrēpan, screopan); *eo* as *ā*: am (eom); as *ā*: far (feorr), star (steorra), barm (beorma, bearma), farm (feorm, fearm), fart (feort), hart (heorut, heort) [on the other hand Hertford = Heorutford], dwarf (pveorg), carve (ceorfan), bark (beorcan); Darwent (Deorvent, Dārenta).

Long vowels, such as *ā*, *æ* and *ē* and the diphthong *eó*, have seldom been transformed into *a*; *a* as *ā*: ask (āscjan), dastard (to dāstrjan); as *ē*: thrive (prāv = manipulus), mate (Old-norse māti = sodalis), any (ānig, ænig), Old-English eny; *æ* as *ā*: mad (gemæd, Gothic ga-meids = deficient), fat (fæted contracted fætt), last (læstan), blast (blæst), ladder (hlædder), bladder (blædre, blēdre, blæddre); as *ā*: thrall (præl, prāl, preāl); as *ē*: blaze (blæse); *ē* as *ā*: bramble (brēmbel), fadge (ge-fēgan = conjungere, compare Old-English alle in fageyng (TOWNELEY MYST.) = altogether); as *ē*: waste (vēstan, compare Latin vastare); *eó* as *ā*: darling along with dearling (deorling, dýrling), farthing (feórðung, Old-English ferthing); also as *ā* in lad (leod, Old-English leode (PIERS PLOUGHM.), Oldscotch laid). Finally *ea* is also found transmuted into *ā*: chapman, chapwoman (ceápmann).

Besides the French *a*, as likewise *a* in Latin-greek words subsequently introduced, *e*, especially before *r*, *ai* and *au* in the accented syllable, are changed into *a*, as the Italian *ā*, rarely, however, except before *r*.

The Old-French *a*, which before *n* had been mostly transformed into *au*, but in Modern-English even there frequently returns to *a* (see *au*), has very commonly been preserved; as *ā*: dam (dame), damsel (damisele), damage (damage, damaige), dance (danser, dancer), abandon (abandanner), manage (from manage, manaige = mansionaticum), manner (maniere), balance (the same), talent (the same), tarry (tarier), marry (marier), travel (travailler, tra-

veiller), *pass* (*passer*) &c.; — as *ā* before a simple *r*: *marble* (*marbre*), *alarm* (*a l'arme*); — as *ē* very commonly in an open syllable: *rage*, *race*, *table*, *nacre* (*nacaire*, Modern-French *nacre*), *cage*, *agent*, *nature*, *mason* (*maçon*), *danger* (*dangier*), *chaste* (the same).

The Old-French *e* becomes *a*, particularly before *m*, *n*, before which, even in Old-French, it was often changed into *a*, and *r*, as *ā*: *example*, *sample* (*exemple*, *essample*), *ambush* (*embuscher*), *enamel* (from *āmail*, medieval-Latin *smaltum*), *channel* (*chenau*, *chenal*), *pansy* (*pensee*, Old-English *paunce* (SPENSER), *frantic* (*frenetique*, compare *frenzy*, Old-English *frenetike*), *janty* (*gentil*); *cratch* (*crebe*, *creche*); — as *ā*: *war* (*guerre*, *werre*), Old-English *werre*, *quarrel* (*querele*); — as *ā*: *marvel* (*merveille*), *parson* (*persone*), *partridge* (*pertris*), *parsley* (*persil*), Old-English *perselee*, *parrot* (*perroquet* = *Pierrot*?), *tarnish* (*ternir*, Old-Highdutch *tarnjarn*), *varnish* (*vernir*), *garner* (*grenier*, *gernier*), *varvels* (*vervelle*).

Old-French *ai*, interchanging with *ei*, *e* and *a*, gives *ā* in *vanguish* (*vaincre*, *veindre*, *vencre*), *sally* (*saillir*, *salir*), *cash* (*caisse*, *casse*), *master* (*maistre*), Old-English *maister*.

Old-French *au*, mostly interchanging with *al*, also *aul*, in which the English often has preserved *al*, *aul* or *au* as *ā*: *savage* (*salvage*, *sauvage*), *salmon* (*saumon*), *hacqueton* (*auqueton*, Modern-French *hoqueton*); — mostly as *ē*: *safe* (*salf*, *sauf*), *save* (*salver*, *sauver*, *saver*), *chafe* (*chaufier*, *caufer*), *sage* (*sauge*, Latin *salvia*, compare Anglo-Saxon *salvige*), *mavis* (*mauvis*, Spanish *malvis*); with the *l* preserved mostly as *ā*: *altar* (*alter*, *altel*, *autel*), *false* (*fals*, *faus*), *falcon* (*falcon*, *faucon*), *caldron* (*chaudron*), (alongwith *vault*, *assault*); — yet also as *ā*: *balm* (*balme*, *basme*) alongwith *bālsam*, and *hance*, *enhance* (*enhalcer*, *enhaucier*) with the change of *l* into *n*; see moreover *au*.

a in an accented syllable has seldom arisen from other vowels, as from *i* in *garland* (*gouirlande*, yet provincially *garlanda*), Old-English *gerlond*.

In an unaccented syllable a primitive *a* is mostly found before the accent, yet the Old-French *e*, as sometimes even in Old-French itself, has passed into *ā*, as in: *anóint* (*enoindre*), *assáy* (*essaier*, *asaier*), *astónish* (*estoner*), *assárt* (*essarter*), *affráy* (*esfreer*, *effreer*, *effreier*), Old-English *aspie*, *astáblishe*, *astáte* &c.; also *o*: *abéisance* alongwith *obeisance*, *rigadóon* (*rigodon*), *platóon* (*peloton*). After the accented syllable, especially in the unaccented final syllable, *a* often stands in the place of *e* and *i* in Anglo-Saxon as well as in other words: *érrand* (*ærende*, *ærynde*), *thóusand* (*pūsend*) &c.; especially in the termination *ar*: *liar* (Old-English *liere*), *bégar* (Old-English *beggere*), see derivation; — *mánacle* (*manicle*), *sáusage* (*saucisse*), *Fáston* (*villa Faustini*); instead of *o*: *húsband* (*húsbonde*), *sýcamore* (*sycomore*) &c.; *al* is also found preserved instead of *au*: *hérald* (Old-French *heralt*, *heraut*, Medieval-Latin *heraldus*, Old-English *heraud*). Confusion of *a* and *n*, as well as of *a* and *e* have often formerly occurred in unaccented syllables. Compare T. Mommsen, Shakspeare's *Romeo* and *Juliette* 1859 p. 32 ff.

Ai and *ay* often divide with *ei* and *ey* the province of the same

primitive sounds, yet with the preponderance of *ai* and *ay* in accented syllables. In Old-English *ai* often gives place to *ei*: wey, seyl (sail), streit, seint, feith, ordeinen, atteinen, maintenir, feinen, preien, werreien, queintise (quaintness) &c. Alongwith these are found *ee*, *e*: slee, sle (slay) sede, ysed, sustenen &c.

Ai in the middle of accented syllables arises but seldom from simple Anglosaxon vowels, as from:

the Anglosaxon *â*: bait (bât = esca, verb bātjan, Old-norse beita), swain (svân, Old-Highdutch swein), hail (hâl) alongwith whole, raip (râp) along with rope, compare Lowdutch rêp = raise (râsjan).

the Anglosaxon *æ*: hair (hær) = crinis, bait also bate = to attack (bætan, Old-Highdutch beizjan = incitare, fraenare).

g, commonly with the softening of a *g* following the vowel, from:

the Anglosaxon *æg*: main (māgen), maiden (māgden, mæden, mādēn), nail (nāgel), brain (brāgen, bragen, bregen), fain (fāgen, fagen), fair (fāger), wain (vāgen, vāgn, væn), tail (tāgel), snail (snāgel, snæl, snegel), gain (gāgn, gegn, gēn), hail (hagal, hāgel).

The Anglosaxon *eg*, *ēg*: ail (egljan, according to Bosworth, agljan like the Gothic), again (ongegn, āgēn), twain (tvegen), laid (legede, lēde), rain (rēgen, rēn), sail (sēgel), braid, upbraid (brēgdan, upgebrēgdan), said [partic.] (sāgd, sæd); eh: drain (dreh-nigēan, drēnigēan).

The Anglosaxon *æg*: rarely in the middle, often at the end of a syllable, as *ay*: stairs (stæger).

From Old-French vowels *ai* very frequently proceeds, thus from:

The Old-French *a*, already sometimes interchanging with *ai*, *ei*: avail, prevail (valoir, vœlir), explain (compare aplanier, aplagnier from plain), exclaim, reclaim, proclaim (clamer, claimer, cleimer); compare cairn, Cymric carn.

The Old-French *ai*, *ei*, *oi*, of which *ei* is wont to be interchanged with the two others, give *ai* in the middle of a syllable: air (air, eire), aid (aider, eider), aigret and egret (aigrette), arraign (araisnier, aragnier), bail (bailler, bailier, baller), retail (retailer), flail (flael, flail), frail (fraile, fragile), caitiff (caitif, chaitif, chetif), gaiter (to the Old-French gaitreux, ragged, Modern-French guêtre), grain (graine), saint (saint, seint).

attain (ateindre, ataindre), restrain (restreindre, restraindre), refrain (freindre, fraindre), disdain (desdeigner, desdegner, desdaigner), paint (peint), faint (feint, faint), taint (teint, taint), praise (substantive preis, pris, verb preisier, proisier, prisier), impair (empirer, empeirer from pejor), despair (from desperer, compare 1. person present espeir, espoir), faith (feid, foit, fei, foi). — pain (poine, peine, paine), fair (foire, feire, fere = forum), quaint cointe = comptus), acquainted (acointer = adcoignare).

The Old-French *e* has in a series of words produced *ai*: abstain, obtain, maintain, retain, pertain, contain, entertain (from tenir), ordain (ordener, ordoner) compare the Old-English ordeynen (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), it was ordyned (MAUND.), ordeigne (PIERS PLOUGHMAN).

The softening of a *g* after *i* is to be met with even in Old-French,

as in many of the instances cited under *ai*; otherwise the *jn*, *gn* which have arisen from *ni* through transposition are, after *a*, treated as *in*: Spain (Espagne = Hispania). The Old-French often changes *ani* into *aign*; Old-English has sometimes preserved the latter form: campaign (campaigne, champaigne); even there *agn*, *aign* and *ain* stand alongside each other, where English chuses *ain*, particularly in the unaccented syllable: m^ountain (montaigne, montagne, muntaine), b^argain (bargaigne, bargaigne, bargain, compare the medieval-Latin *barcaniare*).

In an unaccented syllable *ai* has been mostly maintained out of the Old-French *ai*: f^ountain, ch^aplain, chieftain (chevetaine), c^ertair &c.; here and there it has arisen out of *ei*, *i*: v^ervain (verveine), curt^ain (courtaine).

Ay, mostly of like origin with *ai*, interchanges sometimes with *ai* in the middle of a syllable: v^aivode and w^aywode, and often with *aw*: Old-English daw and day, law and lay, the Modern-English haw and hay, crawfish and crayfish. It arises from:

the Anglosaxon *ā*: aye = ever (ā instead of *āv*).

the Anglosaxon *æ*: wayward (væv^ærdlice = proterve).

the Anglosaxon *æg*: may (mæg), day (dæg), hay (hæg = septum); slay (slahan, slagan, contracted slean, slān).

the Anglosaxon *eg*, *ēg*: lay (lecgan), say (secgan), Old-English leggen, seggen, play (Substantive plēga, verb plēgjan), way (væg), sway (svēgjan); *ēg* in hay (hēg to heāvan), bewray (vrēgēan, vrēgan, Old-English bewrey, bewrie).

the ancient Anglosaxon *æg*: clay (clæg), gray along with grey (græg, grēg, grig), blay (blæge = gobio).

the Old-French *ai*, *ei*, *oi*: bay (bai = badius), bay (abaier = aboyer), bay (baie), lay (lai = laicus), lay (lais, Cymric llais), ray (rais, rai = radius), ray (raie, Latin raja), pay (paier, paer), jay (gai, jai, geai) and gay (the same), stay = (steir esteir, ester = stare), and = to prop (étayer), fay hence fairy, properly abstract (fae, feie, fee, Dauphinic faye = fata), delay (delai from delaier), decay (from caer, keir, cair, cheoir &c.), betray (from traïr, trahir, compare Old-Scotch betrais, Old-English betrayed = deceived), mayor (maire, maior, major); — pray (preier, proier, prier), ray, array (roi, rei, rai; arroï, arrei, arrai), display (from pleier, ploier, plier), allay and alloy (aloier, aleier to loi).

the Old-French *ag* in an unaccented syllable has become *ay* in f^orray (forragier = pillar).

Au not unfrequently interchanges with *aw*, to which it is equivalent in pronunciation, compare aukward and awkward, bauble and bawble, waul and wawl, maukin, mawkin and malkin, haulser, halser and hawser. They have, however, in part different origins.

In Germanic words the accented syllable *au* principally represents, although rarely, where it stands before *gh*, (Anglosaxon *h*) when various primitive vowels occur:

The Anglosaxon *ea*: laugh (hleahhan, hlihhan), Old-English still lihe, lighe (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), laughter (hleahtor), in the

obsolete raught from reach (reahte, reakt along with rehte, reht), straight from stretch (strehte, streht or streahte, streaht), see the verb. æ: taught (tæhte, tæht); o: daughter (dohtor); ô: draught (drôht); *aw* with the like effect: aught and naught along with ought, nought (âviht, âuht; nâviht, nâuht).

au in Maudlin = Magdalen has arisen out of *ag*, compare Old-English Maudeleyne; the obsolete dwaule points to the Anglo-saxon *dvoljan* = errare, delirare.

A simple *a* gives *au* in haul alongside of hale (Old-norse hala, Lowdutch hâlen, French haler).

The Old-French *au* is preserved mostly with the obscured sound (*â*), as also the Latin and Greek *au* (see pronunciation): autumn, august, audience, auspice, Gaul (Gaule), sausage (saucisse), gauge (Old-Wallon gauger, Modern-French jauger), jaundice (jaunisse), causey (chaussée), applaud &c. The forms *al*, *aul*, *au* are partly rendered by *au*: hauberk (halberc, haubert &c.), auburn (aubour = alburnum) also alburn; on the otherhand fault (falte, faute), fawt (SKELTON), and commonly falcon, falchion (fauchon from falx), vault (volte, voute, vaute), alnage an ellmeasure (from alne, aune), also aulnage and auln = ell. For the Germanic balk (Old-norse bálkr) bauk and baulk are also sometimes written; maul and mall answers to the Old-French maule, Latin malleus.

The Old-French *a*, especially before *n*, gives *au* with the sound *â* (*â*): aunte (ante = amita), maunch and manche (manche), launch (lancer, lanchier), paunch (pance, panche), vaunt (vanter), *avaunt!* (avant), daunt (danter = domitare), staunch and stanch (estancher), haunt (hanter), haunch (hanche), gauntlet (gantlet), chaunt alongwith chant (chanter). *en* is sometimes made equal to *an*: maund (mendier). The modern language gradually abandons this *au* and restores *a*. The Old-English still frequently has *au* instead of the Modern-English *a* in the accented and unaccented syllable: dauncen (compare dauncing [RANDOLPH'S Poems 1643 p. 105]), chaungen, grauten, straunge, geaunt (giant), braunched, Launcelot, Flaundres, Chaunteclere, auncestrie; servaunt, tyraunt, ordinaunce, vengeaunce, substaunce &c.

Anglosaxon words are seldom taken by it, as maund, basket, (mand, mond), askaunt, askaunce along with askant, askance (see the adverb). Dialectically this is more frequent

Even a mere *a* sometimes gives *au*: gauze (gaze); the Old-English oftener, as auvis (Lydgate): aumail (enamel) and others.

Aw appears in Germanic words mostly with the change of a final *g*, *h*, *r* into *w*, and is rare in Romance words. It arises from:

The Anglosaxon *ag*: maw (maga), law (lagu, lag, lah), draw along with drag (dragan), dawn (to dagan), saw (sage), gnaw (gna-gan), haw, hawthorn (haga along with hæg and hagamorn, hægorn); awn bristle (Anglosaxon *egl* points to the Old-Highdutch *ah*, agana, Swedish *agn*).

The Anglosaxon *eg*: awe, verb overáwe (ege, verb egjan, Gothic agjan).

The Anglosaxon *eah*: saw (seah). Compare Mawmet, Old-French Mahom, Mahommet.

The Anglosaxon *av*, *éav*, *áv*: thaw (pavan), straw (strav), claw (clavu, contracted clā), awl (avul, ál); raw (hreáv) raw along with rew (rāv). Thus also arises launder from the French *lavandière*.

Even *f* and *b* are softened into *w*: hawk (hafuc), drawl (Old-norse *drafa*, *drafla*, Danish *drave*, *drævle*); crawfish also crayfish answers to the crabfish, but may also stand under the influence of the French *écrevisse*, as it is dialectically called *crévis* in the North of England. Chaw points to the Anglosaxon *ceáfl* = *faux*, alongside whereof *geáfl* and *geágl* stand; now commonly jaw, which may have become confounded with the Old-French *joe*, Modern-French *joue*. Scrawl stands alongside of scramble, and crawl answers to the Lowdutch *krabbeln*, *krawweln* = to creep, and alongside thereof *kraulen*. Awk, awkward answers to the Old-Highdutch *abuh* = *perversus*, Middle-Highdutch *ebech*, Gothic *ibuks*, Old-English *aquarde* (SKELTON).

The Anglosaxon *á*, *éá* produce *aw* in: yawn (*gânjan*), along with which jaw occurs, spawl (*spâtl*, verb *spâtljan*), gawk (*geác*, Old-norse *gaukr*), compare Old-English *goky* = *gawky*. In general *a* seems sometimes thus obscured, particularly before *l*: brawl (Lowdutch *brallen*, Danish *bralle*), to bralle (SKELTON I, 131.), Old-English *yawl* = to yell (SPENSER) Old-norse *gala* = *cantare*, Anglosaxon *galan*, *wrawl* (Danish *vraale*), *bawl* (compare Lowdutch *ballern* = to strike, so as to sound) *Aw* also takes the place of *al*: hawm, haum, haulm, helm and hame (Anglosaxon *healm*, *halm*), hawse and halse, hawser and halser (*hals*, *heals*?); chawdron reminds us of the Lowdutch *kaldûnen*, Danish *kallun* = *entrails*. Compare *chawduen* = *chaldron*, a sort of sauce, in *Reliq. Antiq.* I. p. 88. Dialectically, for example in Shropshire, *l* is many times changed into *w*. *Aw* before *n* has arisen from *a* in pawn (Old-norse *pantr*, Old-French *pan*), tawny (to the French *tan*, compare the Medieval-Latin *tanare*). In hawk, hawker *a* has likewise become *aw* (Highdutch *hökern*, *höker*, Lowdutch *hâkern*, *kâk* for instance *lichthâk* &c.).

Paw (Cymric *pawen*, Old-French *poe*, *poie*), point to Celtic forms, *bawd* = a pimp (Cymric *bawlyd* from *baw* = *sluttish*, *filthy*), *laww* (Cymric *lawnt*, *lawnd*, American *lann*, French *lande* from the Germanic land).

The Old-French *eo* gives occasionally *aw*: pawn along with peon (*peon*, Modern-French *pion*, Latin *pedo*), fawn = young deer (*feon*, *faon*) whence fawn = to bring forth a fawn (*feoner*, *faoner*), but not in fawn to wheedle, to cherish (Anglosaxon *fagenjan*, *fāgnjan*, *fahnjan* = *exultare*).

In lawn the French *linon* is contracted.

O in an accented syllable, variously tinged as a short or as a long vowel, has a narrower range in Modern than in Old-English (see *a*) where it not only frequently took the place of *a*, but also till oftener took the place of the Modern-English *oa*, as in *brode*, *brod* (broad), *othe* (oath) &c. Even now the language fluctuates betwixt *doate* and *dote*, *cloak* and *cloke*, *loath* and *loth* and some others. Where it appears at present instead of the Anglosaxon *éó*, *éd*, *eo*, *y*, *e* was frequently substituted for it Old-English, as *lesen*,

lese in the 16th century (JACK JUGLER p. 9, SKELTON l. 131). (lose), ches, chees (chose), shet (shot), clef, cleef (clove, cleft), hefe (obsolete hove = heaved), werk (work), swerd (sword), werse (worse) &c. Fluctuations betwixt *o* and *u* are not rare in Modern-English: encomber and encumber, bombast and bumbast, bombard and bumbard, clock and cluck; the Old-English often substituted *o* for the present *u* (see *u*). In preterites in the Anglo-saxon *ā* the Old-English *a* has been preserved. The phonetic tinges of *o* as English *ō*, *ū*, *ā* and *ō* were essentially fixed in the 17th century.

The Anglosaxon *o* gives a short and a long, variously tinged *o*. It appears short, like an English *o*, for instance in drop (dropjan, drupjan), hop (hoppan), lot (hlot), shot (scoten), sod, sodden (soden), god (god), knot (cnotta), body (bodig), moth (moððe), oft, often (oft), clock (cloccean), lock (Substantive loc, verb lucjan, locjan), ox (oxa), fox (fox), otter (otor), follow (folgjan), hollow (hol, Swedish holig), morrow (morgen, morn), borrow (borgjan); as a lengthened *ō* (*ā*): for (for), storm (storm), horn (horn), thorn (porn), bord (bord), organ (organ), horse (hors), born and borne (boren), torn (toren), shorn (scoren) &c.; rarely as *ū*: word (vord), oven (ofen); often as *ō*: over (ofer), open (open), smoke substantive smoca, verb smocjan, toll (toll), colt (colt), gold (go'd), folk (folc), stolen (stolen), broken (brocen).

The Anglosaxon *u* chiefly as *ū*: some (sum), come (cuman, cviman), ton (tunne), son (sunu), London (Lunden), honey (hunig), love (lufjan), above (bufan), tongue (tunge), monk (munuc, monac), borough (buruh), worm (vurm, vurm), wonder (vundor); sometimes as a Highdutch short *ū*: gom (guma = homo), wolf (vulf); rarely as an English *ō*: clock (clucge, bell).

The Anglosaxon *eo*, *i*, *y*, which in part relate to *u*, in part pass into *o* (*u*), mostly after *w*, as an English *ū*: work (veorc, vœrc), wort (vyrt, virt = herba), worth (substantive veorð, vyrð, vurð), worse, worst (adjective vyrsa, vyrsest; adverb virs, vyrs; vyrst), world (veorold, vorold, vorld, viaruld); — as a lengthened *ō* (*ā*): sword (sveord, svurd, svord). In woman *i* appears as a short *ū* (vifman, vimman, vimmann, vemmann), whose plural has preserved a short *i*. The contraction wo'n't (wo'nt = will not), has a long *o*.

The Anglosaxon *a* (*ā*, *ea*), which, especially before *m* and *n* was exchanged for *o* even in Anglosaxon, has become *o* as an English *ū* or *ō*, mostly before *ng*; as *ū* in among (āmang), monger (mangere), also won (vann), quoth (cvāð); as *ō* in from (fram, from), long (lang, long), wrong (vrang, vrong), song (sang, song), strong (strang, strong), got (geat), trod (trād), poppy (papig, popig = papaver); as a lengthened *ō* (*ā*) before *r*: bore (bār), tore (tār), shore (scār); as a long *ō* before *ld*: old (ald, eald), bold (bald, beald, bold), fold (feald), told (tealde; teald), sold (sealde; seald), hold (haldan), cold (ceald, cald), (Scotch and North-English auld, bauld, cauld, hauld &c.), as in stole (stāl), broke (brāc) and clover (clāfer); before *mb*: in comb (camb, comb); on the other hand as *ū* in womb (vamb, vom). The Anglosaxon *sva*, sic; *svā*, ut, gives *sō*; *ar* (an) works in *cōle* (cavl, caul, ceavel).

The Anglosaxon *ō* has remained long as *o* before *r*: ore (ôr, ôra, ôre), whorr (hôre); as *ū* in do (dôn), else shortened into *ū*: other (ôðer, Gothic anþar), mother (môdor), brother (brôðor), month (mônað), monday (mônandæg), don (gedôn), glove (glôf); sometimes as *ó*: rod (rôd), soft (sôfte, sêfte), blossom (blôstma, blôsama), foster (fôsterjan); as a short Highdutch *u* in bosom (bôsum, bôsm); to, together with too, is the Anglosaxon *tô*.

The Anglosaxon *eó* is to be met with as *ø* in moss (meós, Old-norse mosi) and lengthened in the obsolete frory (freórig), with the *ū* sound in lose (leósan).

The Anglosaxon *ā*, which else passes into *oa* has been often changed into a long *ō*: home (hām), only (ānlic, ænlic), bone (bān), drone (drān, dræn), stone (stān), whole (hāl), holy (hāleg), more, most (māra, mæra; mæst), lore (lār), sore (Adjective sār, Adverb sære), rope (rāp), grope (grāpjan), stroke (strācjan), spoke (spāca); and the preterites with the Anglosaxon *ā* which have been preserved; drove, throve, wrote, smote, rode, strode, rose, abode (drāf, prāf, vrāt &c.); both (bā, Old-norse bāðir), ghost (gāst, gæst); also go (gangan, gān). A shortening into *ō* takes place in one, none (ān, nān), shone (scān), cloth and to clothe (clāð, clāðjan), hot (hāt) and the ancient wot (vāt = scit); in the unaccented syllable: wédlock (vedlāc = pignus foederis); lengthened in wroth (vrāð = iratus, alongside of vræð = ira). *ā* appears as *ū* under the influence of a preceding *w* in two (tvā); as an English *ā* in lord (hlāford), where *ao* seems to have produced the sound; not, with *ō*, has been shortened from nought, naught (ne-ā-viht, nāuht, nōht, nāht, nāt). Northern dialects, like the Scotch, often preserve *a* and therewith *ai* (as if for *oa*): bane, haly, bainya (bony), hail (whole), mast, maist (most) &c.

The Anglosaxon *ēa* appears as a long *ō* in the preterites: chose, froze, clove along with cleft (ceās, freās, cleāf), formerly also in crope (crept), rofe (reāf — fidit), shofe (sceāf = trusit); as *ō* still in sod (seāð) = seethed, and shot (sceāt), in an unaccented syllable also in hémlock (hemleāc = cicuta).

The Anglosaxon *ū* answers to the English *ū* in dove (dufe, Old-norse dúfa), as well as in an unaccented syllable in Wilton (Viltūn), Northampton (Norðhamtūn) &c.

In Romance, as well as in later received Latin and Greek words, *o* in an accented syllable commonly answers to an *o*, namely if we recur to the Old-French for the words received from the French, where a primitive *o*, *u*, *au*, *eu* mostly appears as *o*, along with *u* and *ou*, whereas Modern-French discriminates *o*, *ou*, *eu* and *au*. The quantity and accentual tinge of this English *o* depends, as with other non-Germanic vowels, mostly upon influences foreign to the fundamental forms.

The Old-French *o* (Modern-French *o*) appears as an English *ō* in: nombril, solemn, folly (compare folier, foloier), forest (the same) astonish (estoner), honour (honor, hounour), orison (oreison, orison), opulent, offer (offeire, offrer, offrir), office, coffin (cofin), lozenger (losangier, losengeor); rarely *ū*; covet (coveiter, cuveiter), covin (covine, couvaine), money (moneie); lengthened as

ô (*â*): form (forme, fourme, furme), port, porche, corse, corpse (cors, corpse), morsel (morsel, morcel), pork (porc), sorcerer (sorcier) &c.; as *ô*: odour (odor, odour), glorious (glorios, glorious), sole (sole = solea), sojourn (sojourn, sejourner) &c.; host (ost, host), noble &c. Moreover *o* passes into *ou*.

The Old-French *o* along with *u*, *ou* (Modern-French *ou*) partly as an English *û*: colour (color, -ur, -our), plover (verb plover, pluver, plouvoir), govern (governor, guverner), cover, recover (covrir, cuvrir, couvrir), covey (verb cover, cuver, couver), dozen (dozaine); as an English *ô*: forage (verb forrer, forragier, fourragier, fouragier), novel (novel, nuvel), sovereign (soverain, suverain), bottle (botte, boute, bouteille), cost (coster, couster); lengthened in: torment (tormenter), fork (forche, forque, fourche, yet even the Anglosaxon *forc*); as a long *ô*: condole (doloir, douloir), overt, overture (overt, ovrir), trover (to trover, truver), roll (roler, roeler, Modern-French rouler), to which control (= contrerôle, contrôle); as *û*: in move, prove, approve, improve, reprove (mouvoir, meuvre, mouvoir, prover, pruver, prouver); the Old-English has here *e* and *ee*: meven, meeven, preven, appreven &c., compare above *ie*. This *o* is also found as *u* and *ou* in the English, as it fluctuates in French.

The Old-French *o* (Modern-French *au*) proceeding from a primitive *au*, *av*, as *ô*: impoverish (povre), ostrich (ostruce, ostruche), lengthened in restore (restorer); compare above *côle*, Anglosaxon *cavl*, *caul*.

The Old-French *o* (Modern-French *eu*) rarely: poplar (poplier = peuplier).

Other vowels lie at the root in some words, as the Modern-French *eui*, *oui* before *l*: foliage (feuillage), patrôl; *o* arises from *e* in dolphin, Old-English delfyn (perhaps under the influence of the French dauphin); from *a* in pöpe (yet also the Anglosaxon papdôm); comrade (camarade), coffee (café), corporal (caporal) and many others.

In the unaccented syllable Romance prefixes in *o* commonly are preserved; the syllables after the accent in Germanic and other words have frequently developed themselves out of other vowels. Thus an Anglosaxon *e* before *m* and *n*, especially, has frequently passed into *o*: fathom (faðem), iron (îren), beacon (beacen, beacn), wággon (vāgen, vāgn), ácorn (âcern, acirn); as this *o* is readily inserted before nasals: réckon (recnan), Old-English reckon (see Amplification of the Word); on the change of the Anglosaxon *á*, *é*, *ú* in *o* see above. *u* in búllock (bulluca) &c.; *ô*: kíngdom (cýningdôm) &c.

In Romance words besides *o* (*u*, *ou*) also *oi* (*ei*, *e*) are represented as *o*: mánor (manoir, -eir, -er), otherwise even the Old-French *or* along with *oir*: rázor (rasor, rasoir), mirror (mireor). The terminations *or* and *our* stand alongside of each other in Modern-English, compare emperor (empereor, empereour) see *ou*. *Or* (*ior*) frequently proceeds from *er* (*ier*) through assimilation, on account of the meaning, for instance in wárrrior (guerrier), bachelor (bachelor, bachelier), even visor (visière); both are mingled even in Old-French, compare cónselltór (conseiller and conseiller). *on* is also found

instead of *en*: *sûrgeon* (*surgien*), *ébon*, *ébony* (*ébène*); in *cushion* the French *coussin* appears. Old-English *quishin* (CHAUCER).

Oo, represented in Old-English also by *o*: *sone* = *soon*, *sothe* = *sooth*, *rote* = *root*, *toke*, *tok* = *took*, *skoke*, *shok* = *shook* &c., serves in Anglosaxon words especially to represent the Anglosaxon *ô*. Thus we still find *behoof*, *behoove* and along therewith *behoive* in Modern-English (*behôf*, *behôfjan*).

The pronunciation as *û*, which is shortened in some cases, was universally acknowledged in the 17th century. As *oo* in Old-English interchanges also with *oa* as well as with *o*, it seems to have long preserved the *o*-sound.

The Anglosaxon *ô*, even where not answering to the Old-Highdutch *uo*, appears as a long *û*: *too* (*tô*), *broom* (*brôm* = *brâm*), *gloom* (*glôm*), *doom* (*dôm*), *moon* (*môna* = *mâna*), *noon* (*nôn*, Latin *nona*), *pool* (*pôl*), *moor* (*môr*), *hoop* (*hâp*), *hoof* (*hâf*), *root* (*rôt*), *mood* (*môd*), *food* (*fôda*), *tooth* (*tôð*); sometimes as a short *û*: *look* (*lôcjan*), *hook* (*hôc*) and others in *k*; as in *foot* (*fôt*) and *soot* (*sôt*), *wood* (*vôd*) = *mad*, *good* (*gôd*), *hood* (*hôd*); and as the English *û* in *blood* (*blôd*) and *flood* (*flôd*). Before *r* a lengthened *ô* arises in *floor* (*flôr*).

The Anglosaxon *û* becomes *û* in *room* (*rûm*), compare also *booty* Old-norse *býti*, Middle-Highdutch *bûten*; a short *û* in: *brook* = *endure*, *bear* (*brûcan* = *uti*, *frui*).

The Anglosaxon *o* and *u* appear as a long *û* in *soon* (*sona*, *suna*), *swoon* (*âsvunan* = *animo deficere*, a suspicious form, however), *stoop* (*stupjan*), as a short *û*: *cook* (*coc*, Latin *côquus*), *wood* (*vudu* = *vidu*), *wool* (*vull*); as a lengthened *ô* in *door* (*dur*, *dor*, *dyr*).

The Anglosaxon *eó* appears as *oo* = *û* in *choose* (*ceósan*) and *shoot* (*sceótan*), Old-English *chesen*, *cheten*, Lowdutch *kesen*, *schen*, whereas other *eó* now pass into *ea* and *ee*: *cleave* (*cleófan*, *cláfan*), *freeze* (*freósan*), *seethe* (*seóðan*).

The Anglosaxon *eá*, *é* answer to *oo* in *loose* (Adjective *leás* to the verb *lêsan*, *lÿsan*), *smooth* (*smêðe* and *smœðe*, Cymric *mwydh*, alongside of *smæðe* = *laevis*, *mollis*).

Dialectically (in the Isle of Thanet) *woor* and *wore* are found, Scotch and North-English *wair*, *ware*, Anglosaxon *vâr*.

Old-French *o*, *u* (Modern-French *o*, *ou*, *au*, *eu*) sometimes also gives a long *oo*: *boot* (to the Old-French *botte*, *boute*), *fool* (*fol*, *fous*, yet the Old-norse *fôl*), *troop* (*trope*, *trupe*), *poop* (Modern-French *poupe*), *proof* (*prove*, Modern-French *preuve*, compare Anglosaxon *prôfjan*), *poor* (*povre*, *poure*, *povere*, Modern-French *pauvre*), Old-English *poore* and *povere* alongside of each other (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 216).

In modern words the termination *on* is often changed into an accented *oon*: *monsóon*, *poltróon*, *pantalóon*, *cartóon*, *gal-lóon*, *salóon*, *spontóon* and many more (*monson*, *monçon*, *pol-tron*, *pantalon*, *carton*, *galon*, *salon*, *espon-ton*).

In an unaccented syllable the Anglosaxon *á* has become *oo*, but shortened into *û* in the Anglosaxon syllable *hád* = Highdutch *heit*, as in *childhood* (*cildhád*), *priesthood* (*preósthád*) &c. Sometimes *head* is found alongside of it in Modern-English: *gódhead*. The

ō (*ā*): form (forme, fourme, furme), port, porche, corse, corpse (cors, corps), morsel (morsel, morcel), pork (porc), sorcerer (sorcier) &c.; as *ū*: odour (odor, odour), glorious (glorios, glorious), sole (sole = solea), sojourn (sojourn, sejourner) &c.; host (ost, host), noble &c. Moreover *o* passes into *ou*.

The Old-French *o* along with *u*, *ou* (Modern-French *ou*) partly as an English *ū*: colour (color, -ur, -our), plover (verb plover, pluver, plouvoir), govern (governor, guverner), cover, recover (covrir, cuvrir, couvrir), covey (verb cover, cuver, couver), dozen (dozaine); as an English *ō*: forage (verb forrer, forragier, fourragier, fouragier), novel (novel, nuvel), sovereign (soverain, suverain), bottle (botte, boutte, bouteille), cost (coster, couster); lengthened in: torment (tormenter), fork (forche, forque, fourche, yet even the Anglosaxon *forc*); as a long *ō*: condole (doloir, douloir), overt, overture (overt, ovrir), trover (to trover, truver), roll (roler, roeler, Modern-French rouler), to which control (= contrerôle, contrôle); as *ū*: in move, prove, approve, improve, reprove (mouvoir, meuvre, mouvoir, prover, pruver, prouver); the Old-English has here *e* and *ee*: meven, meeven, preven, appreven &c., compare above *ie*. This *o* is also found as *u* and *ou* in the English, as it fluctuates in French.

The Old-French *o* (Modern-French *au*) proceeding from a primitive *au*, *av*, as *ō*: impoverish (povre), ostrich (ostruce, ostruche), lengthened in restore (restorer); compare above *côle*, Anglosaxon *cavl*, *caul*.

The Old-French *o* (Modern-French *eu*) rarely: poplar (poplier = peuplier).

Other vowels lie at the root in some words, as the Modern-French *eui*, *oui* before *i*: foliage (feuillage), patrol; *o* arises from *e* in dolphin, Old-English delfyn (perhaps under the influence of the French dauphin); from *a* in pope (yet also the Anglosaxon *papdôm*); comrade (camarade), coffee (café), corporal (caporal) and many others.

In the unaccented syllable Romance prefixes in *o* commonly are preserved; the syllables after the accent in Germanic and other words have frequently developed themselves out of other vowels. Thus an Anglosaxon *e* before *m* and *n*, especially, has frequently passed into *o*: fathom (faðem), iron (îren), beacon (beacen, beacn), waggon (vāgen, vāgn), acorn (ācern, acirn); as this *o* is readily inserted before nasals: reckon (recnan), Old-English reckon (see Amplification of the Word); on the change of the Anglosaxon *ā*, *eā*, *ū* in *o* see above. *u* in bullock (bulluca) &c.; *ō*: kingdom (cyningdôm) &c.

In Romance words besides *o* (*u*, *ou*) also *oi* (*ei*, *e*) are represented as *o*: manor (manoir, -eir, -er), otherwise even the Old-French *or* along with *oir*: razor (rasor, rasoir), mirror (mireor). The terminations *or* and *our* stand alongside of each other in Modern-English, compare emperor (empereor, empereour) see *ou*. *Or* (*ior*) frequently proceeds from *er* (*ier*) through assimilation, on account of the meaning, for instance in warrior (guerrier), bachelor (bacheler, bachelier), even visor (visière); both are mingled even in Old-French, compare counsellor (conseiller and conseilleor). *on* is also found

the Latin *tortus*); *pôrpoise* is *porcus piscis*, which the spelling *porpess* indicates more precisely.

Oy, initial as well as final, coincides completely with *oi* in its origin.

The Old-French *oi*, *ui* gives *oy*: annoy (*anoi*, *anui*, verb *anoier*, *anuier*), joy, enjoy (*joïr*, Substantive *joie*, *goie*) also joyous (*joios*, *joious*), coy (*coi*, *coit* = *quietus*), decoy (probably belongs to *coy*, as a verb in SHAKESPEARE, Old-English *coyen*, but is confounded with *dechoivre*, *decevoir*), alloy (*aloier*), oyster (*oistre*, Modern-French *huître*), destroy (*destruire*), Old-English *destruien*, voyage (*voiage*), *roytelet* (*roitelet*).

Old-French *o* (*ou*): cloy (*cloer*, *clouer* from the Latin *clavus*).

Here is unclerness; hoy, a sort of boat, answers to the Highdutch *heu*; toy to the Hollandish *tooi*, *tooijen*; boy seems connected with the Highdutch *Bube*.

In Old-English *oy* is always written instead of *oi*.

Oa with the sound of the long *ō*, frequently denoted in Old-English by a simple *o* (*othe*, *brode* also *brod*, *rosten*), often by *oo* (*boor* = *boar*, *boot* = *boat*, *looth* = *loath*, *loone* = *loan*, *loof* = *loaf*), in Scottish and North-English rendered also by *a*, *ai* (*fame* = *foam*, *grane* = *groan*, *tadde* = *toad*, also *faim*, *faem*, *grain*) principally serves as a substitute for the Anglosaxon *ā* in Modern-English. In the 17th century John Wallis in his Grammar declares *oa* to be a simple sound: *loam* (*lām* = *lutum*), *foam* (*fām*), *groan* (*grānjan*), *oar* (*ār*), *roar* (*rārjan*), *boar* (*bār*), *hoar* (*hār*), *soap* (*sāpe*), *loaf* (*hlāf*), *boat* (*bāt*), *goat* (*gāt*), *road*, *inroad* (*rād* = *iter equestre*), *woad* (*vād* = *aluta*), *toad* (*tādje*, *tādige*), *goad* (*gād* = *stimulus*), *oath* (*āð*), *loath* (*lāð*), *cloath* (*clāð*), *hoarse* (*hās*), *oak* (*āc*); as *ā* in *broad* (*brād*); Anglosaxon *æ* is represented by it in *moan* (*mænan*) alongside of *mean*, Old-English still *bemenen* = *bemoan*.

oa is seldom employed as the substitute for a short vowel, as for the Anglosaxon *a* in *load* (*hladan*); and more frequently the Anglosaxon *o*: *foal*, else also *fole* (*folā*), *throat* (*prote*), *coal* (*col*), *hoard* (*hord* = *thesaurus*), *roach* (Danish *rokke*) alongside of *ray*, *float* (*flotjan*); *boast* may belong to the Lowdutch *bost* = *breast*, *sik bōsten*, to throw oneself on the breast.

A Romance *o* is likewise represented by *oa*: *roam* (*romier*, *romieu* = Italian *romero*, a pilgrim), *soar* (*essorer*, Provencal *eisaurar*), *doat* and *dote* (*redoter*, Hollandish *doten*), *coat* (*cote*, *cotte*), *coast* (*coste*), *roast* (*rostir* or immediately to the Old-Highdutch *rōstjan*), *toast* (properly to broil from the Latin *tostus*; the French *toster*, is derived from the English), *poach* (*pocher*, *empocher*), *coach* (*coche*), *broch* (*broche*), *approach* (*aprochier*), *reproach* (*reprochier*), *accroach* (*accrocher*), *board* = to accost (*aborder*).

oa comes from *oua* in *rouan*. The English *road* answers to the French *rade*, but perhaps belongs to the Anglosaxon *rād*, which may lie at its root; compare *hranrād* = *balaenae via* = *oceanus*.

Ou and **ow** are equal to one another in their phonetic relations, representing the Highdutch *au* and *u*. The 17th century ascribes

both sounds equally to them. The Old-English interchanges with both, especially where the diphthong *au* appears, in the middle of a word: *thow*, *owre*, *dowghty*, *thowsande* &c. instead of *thou* &c. and reversely: *toun*, *doun*, *broun*, *croun*, *goun*, *touré*, *shoure*, *foul* &c. instead of *town* &c. *tower* &c. *fowl*, and even outside of this phonetic tinge, both are found frequently interchanged. In Modern-English *ou* is found more altered in its phonetic tinge and quantity than *ow*.

Ou arises from the Anglosaxon *û* and *u* in a more limited measure, as well as out of several other vowels, under the influence of a subsequent guttural.

The Anglosaxon *û* gives *ou* (as in other cases, especially in the end of a word and before liquid and nasal letters *ow*) as *au*: *thou* (*pû* or *pu*), *foul* (*fûl*), *our* (*ûser*, *ûre*), *out* (*ût*), *grout* (*grût*), *clout* (*clûtjan* = *consuere*), *proud* (*prût*), *mouth* (*mûð*), *south* (*sûð*), *shroud* (*scrûd*), *mouse* (*mûs*), *house* (*hûs*), *touse* (Lowdutch *tûsen*), *thousand* (*pûsend*).

Anglosaxon *u* as *au* before *nd*: *pound* (*pund*), *sound* (*sund*), *hound* (*hund*), *ground* (*grund*); with a primitive *y*: *pound* (*pyn-dan*) and in the preterites and participles: *bound* (*bundon-bunden*), *found*, *ground*, *wound* (Old-English often *o* instead of *ou*), whereas *wound* (*vundjan*, *vulnerare*) commonly preserves the long *u* instead of *au*; as *ô* before *ld*: *shoulder* (*sculdor*), Old-English *shulder*; and Anglosaxon *o* (*y*) *mould* (*molde*, *myl*, Gothic *mulda*); yet as a short *û* in: *would* (*volde*), *should* (*scolde*), Old-English *wolde*, *sholde*, *shulde*, to which could (*cûðe*), has been assimilated, Old-English *coude*.

The Anglosaxon *ô*, *o*, *ea*, *ê*, *â* (also *âr*), *u* before gutturals are represented in Modern-English as *ou*, yet with various colour of sound and quantity: as a long *â*: *sought*, *besought* (*sôhte*, *sôht*), *bought* (*bohte*, *boht*), *brought* (*brohte*, *broht*), *wrought* (*vrohte*, *vroht* instead of *vorhte*, *vorht*), *fought* (*feahrt*, *fohten*), *thought* (*peahhte*, *peahht* and *pohte*, *poht*) [along with such forms as *brozte*, *wroght*, *thoght*, *taghte* are found here even early in Old-English those with *ou*], *ought* along with *aught*, *nought* (*âviht*, *âuht*; *nâviht*, *nâuht*); as a short *â* (*ô*): *trough* (*troh*, *trog*), *hough* (*hôh*, *hô*), *cough* (compare *ceabhettan* = *cachinnari*), the obsolete preterite *lough* (*hlôh* = *laughed*) and *lough* (*lub*, compare Celtic *loch*), *chough* (compare the Old-Highdutch *couch*, *gawk*), *shough* = *shaggy dog* (to the Old-norse *skegg*); as *au*: *bough* (*bôh?*), *plough* (Old-norse *plôgr*), *doughty* (*dyhtig* to *duguð*), *drought* (*drugâð*, *drugôð*) often in Old-English *ow*; as a long *ô*: *dough* (*dâh*, *dâg*), *though* (*peáht*); as an English *û*: *enough* (*genôh*), Old-English *ynogh*, *enow*; *rough* (*rûh*, *rûg*, *rûv*), *tough* (*toh*), *slough* (*slôg*); as a long *û*: *through* (*purh*), Old-English *thurgh*, *thorghe*.

Some words with a primitive *eo* are of a particular kind, as *ô*: *four*, *fourth* (*feóver*, *feorðā*); as *û*: *you* (*eóv*), *your* (*eóver*); as *û*: *young* (*geóng*, *jung*), *youngster*, *younker*, Old-English *yong*; with *av* as *o*: *soul* (*sâvel*, *sâul*); and *ô* as *û*: *ousel*, *ouzel* (*ôsle*, Old-Highdutch *amisala*).

In Romance words the *o*, *u*, *ou*, occurring beside each other in the same verbal forms in Old-French, mostly resting upon a Latin *o* and *u*, are represented in an accented syllable before consonants, by *ou*, and pronounced partly as the diphthong *au*, partly as a long *ō*, partly as a short English *ū*. The pronunciation as a long *ū* points frequently to words of later reception, spelt in Modern-French with *ou*.

The Old-French *o*, *u*, *ou* appears as *ou* with the sound *au*, particularly before the nasal *n*, either primitive or arising from *m*: noun (nom, num, noun), mount (monter, munter; Substantive mont, munt, compare Anglosaxon munt and mont), count, account (conter, cunter), count (conte, cunte, cuens = comes), counter- (contre, cuntre, conter, cunter), fount, fountain (font, funt; fontaine, funtaine), round (roond, rōund, reond), found (fonder), profound (profond, parfunt), confound (confondre, confondre), abound (abonder), redound (redonder), compound (com-pondre?), ounce (once, Italian lonza = lynx), ounce (once, compare the Anglosaxon ynce, yndse), pounce (ponce = pumex), frounce (froncer, fruncher), announce, renounce, pronounce, denounce (noncer, nuncer), counsel (consoil, consel), lounge (compare longin, longis, a loiterer, Old-French alonger; is it to be compared with the Lowdutch lungern?). Before other consonants we more rarely find the diphthong, as in hour (hore, heure, ore, eure), flour along with flower (flor, flur, flour, fleur), pouch (poche, yet pocket immediately from the Anglosaxon poca, pocca, poha, whence the French poche), avouch (vocher, vochier = vocare), espouse, espousal, spouse, spousage (espos, espous; esposer, espuser, espousaige), oust (oster), devout (devot, compare voer, vouer), doubt (dote, dute with *h* inserted again) gout (goutte); also stout (Anglosaxon stolt) points to the Old-French form estout, estot.

Words with the *ō*-sound before *l* and *r* are not frequent, as poultry (compare Modern-French poulet), Old-English pultry, coulter and colter (compare coltel, cultel, coutel), court (cort, curt, cour) and others. On the otherhand the *ū*-sound has often been developed: nourish (norir, norrir, nurir), courage (corage, curage, courage), scourge (escourgée, Italian scuriada), journey (jornee, jurnee), countrey (contreie, cuntree), couple (cople) &c; likewise *ū*: in soup (sope, soupe, supe, compare English sup), goujéers (gouge?) and many words easily recognizable. See the pronunciation.

In the unaccented syllable *ou* seldom, except in compounds, such as Éxmouth, goes back to Anglosaxon forms; thórough is the Anglosaxon puruh, purh, Old-English thorowe, still in Skelton thorow; borough Anglosaxon buruh, burh, bury. Compare under *ow*. In Romance words a French *ou* is retained, especially in modern words before the accented syllable, as in rouléau &c. The frequent termination *ous*, as in précieux, vigorous, vicious, answers to the Old-French *os*, *us*, *eus*, *ous* (precios, -us, -eus, -ous; vigoros, vitios &c.). The termination *our* at present frequently exchanged for *or*, has in Old-French the forms *or*, *ur*, *our*, *eur* alongside of each other: vá-lour (valor, -ur, -our &c.). The Old-English has the termination *our* not only in abstract nouns, but also in names of persons, such as traytour, conquerour &c. The Norman forms are here *us* and

ur, whereas *eus*, *ous* and *our* mostly belong to the Picard forms. The Old-English language also frequently makes use of the broader analogously formed termination *ioun* instead of *ion* (regioun, descriptioun &c.), no longer known to Modern-English. Moreover, even in Old-English the forms in *o*, *u*, *ou* run parallel with each other; compare *marvelouse* (TOWNELEY MYSTER. p. 1.), *mervelus*, *gracyous* (ib. p. 20.).

In derivative forms *o* is very frequently found in an unaccented syllable instead of *ou*, as *vigour* — *vigorous*; this rests partly upon the French process, where, with the advanced accent (*vigóur*, — *vigoróus*) the vowel was wont to be reduced. Yet in English the mixture of forms going back immediately to the Latin contributes even more, as is also partly the case in Modern-French. Compare, for instance, *colour*, *colourable*, but *colorate*.

Ow is substituted in the accented syllable for the Anglosaxon *ú* with the sound of *au*, and mostly at the end of a word or of a syllable, although appearing also before *n* and *l*, and, occasionally before other consonants: *now* (*nú* or *nu*?), *bow* (*beógan*, *bûgan*), *cow* (*cú*), *how* (*hû*), *bower* (*bûr*), *shower* (*scûr*), *brow* (*breav*, *bræv*, *brêg*, but also *ofer-brûg*), *brown* (*brûn*), *town* (*tûn*), *down* (*dûn* and *adûne* = *deorsum* alongside of *dûnveard*), *down* (Old-norse *dûn*, Lowdutch *dûn*), *lowt* and *lout* (*lûtan* = *inclinari*), generally a Lowdutch *ú* (Modern-Highdutch *au* also *eu*): *howl* (Lowdutch *hûlen*, *hûlen* Old-norse *yla*, *ylfa*, Old-Highdutch *hiwilôn*, Modern-Highdutch *heulen*), *cower*, *lower* (Lowdutch *lûren*), *drowse* (Lowdutch *drûsen*, whence *drusseln*, Anglosaxon *drusan* or *drûsjan* = *cadere*?), *scowl* (Lowdutch *schûlen* to the Anglosaxon *sceolh*, *scyl* = *strabo*).

A short *u* under the influence of a following *g* gives *ow* = *au*: *sow* (*sugu*, *sug*, or *sûg*?), *fowl* (*fugol*), *cowl* (*cugle*, *cuhle* = *cuculla*).

Out of the Anglosaxon *eó* arises the diphthong *au* in *crowd* (from *creódan* = *premi*). In *tower* (*torr*) the influence of the Old-French *tor*, *tur*, *tour* seems also to have made itself felt.

The Anglosaxon *áw* gives *ow* with the sound of the long *ô*: *row* (*râv* = *series*), *mow* (*mâvan*), *blow* (*blâvan*), *sow* (*sâvan*), *snow* (*snâvan*), *throw* (*prâvan*), *know* (*knâvan*), *crow* (*crâvan*), North-English *low*, a *hill*, (*hlæv*, *hlâv*); *ôv* operates in like manner: *row* (*rôvan* = *remigare*), *low* (*hlôvan* = *mugire*), *blow* (*blôvan*), *flow* (*flôvan*), *glow* (*glôvan*), *grow* (*grôvan*); *blow* a stroke belongs to *bleóvan* = *ferire*, like *trow* = *treóvjan*, *trôvjan*. Even *æw* is thus represented: *slow* (*slav*, *sleav*), *tow* (*tav*, *tov*), *show* along with *shew* (*scavjan*, *sceavjan*, *scevjan*, compare *sceavu*, *sceáv* = *scena*, substantive *show*). The Scotch and North-English dialects have here *knaw*, *snaw*, *blaw* &c.

The Anglosaxon *ág*, *ag*, *og*, *eog* likewise sometimes pass over into *ow* as *ô*; *own* (*âgen*), Old-English *awen*, *auen*, *aughene*, the obsolete *mowe* (*magan*, whence the English *may*), *bow* (*boga* = *arcus*), *rainbow* (*rénboga*), *tow* (*to* *toh* = *tractus*), whence *towage*, French *touer*, *touage*; and even *low* (*lêge*, *lÿge* = *flamma*) belongs here; *low*, in Skelton's time *lawe*, else even earlier *lowe*, answers

to the Old-norse *lâgr*. Compare also *enow* (*genôg*), along with enough.

The Old-French *o*, *u*, *ou*, analogously to the Anglosaxon *û*, transformed into *ow* as the diphthong *au*, when a word or a syllable ends therewith, sometimes also before *n* and *l*: *vow* (*vo*, *vu*, *vou*, *veu*), *avow* (*avoer*, *avouer*), *allow* (*allouer*), *endow* (*doer*, *douer*), *dower*, *dowery* (*doaire*, *douaire*), *prôw* = valiant (*prod*, *prud*, *prou*, *preu*, *pros*, Modern-French *preux*), *prowess* (*proece*, *proesce*), *power* (*pooir*, *pouvoir*, *pouvoir*), *coward* (*coard*, *cuard*, *couart*; to which *cow* = to depress with fear, and *cowish* = fearful (SHAKESPEARE) belong; *flower* (see above *flour*), *rowel* (*roele*, *rouele*), *towel* (*toaille*, *touaille*), *bowels* (*boele*, *buele*, *boiaus*, Latin *botellus*), with which we must compare *vowel* (*voyelle*), *trowel* (*truelle*, Latin *trulla*, *truella*), *powder* (*poldre*, *puldre*, *poudre*), *trowers* (to the verb *torser*, *trusser*, *trusser*, Modern-French substantive *trousses*); *howitzer*, *howitz*, also *hōbit*, French *obus*, descends from the Dutch *haubitze*, like *frow*. *Ow* stands before a final *n* and *l* in *gown* (*gone*, *gune*, yet also the Cymric *gwn*, Diminutive *gynyn*, *gynan*), *crown* (*corone* like the Middle-Highdutch *krōne*), *renown* (*nom*, *num*, *nun*, *noune* — *renom*), on the other hand noun, compare Old-English *renoun*; *frown* (*re-frogner*); *cowl*, seems to refer to *cuel*, Modern-French *cuveau*; *howlet* answers to the French *hulotte*, compare the Old-Highdutch *hûwo*; *hiuwilâ*. On the other hand *ow* sounds like *ô* in *prow* = *prora* (Modern-French *proue*) and *bowl* (*boule*).

In an unaccented syllable the termination *ow* (as *ô*) appears very often in Anglosaxon words; the *w* here is to be regarded as the substitute for a primitive *e*, *h*, and *g*, even in the termination *ig*, which sprang from *j*, in which case *o* enters without regard to the conservation or the rejection of the primitive vowel in the Anglosaxon word, whereas the Old-English has here *e* or no vowel at all: *widewe*, *falewe*, *harewe*, *harewen* &c. and *narwe*, *yelwe*, *holwe*, *pilwe*, *sorwe*, *herberwe* &c. Modern-English: *méadow* (*meadu*, *-eves*), *shâdow* (*scadu*, *-ves*, verb *scadvjan*), *hârow* (*hereve*, *hyrve*), *swâllow* (*svaleve*, *svealve*), *widow* (*viduve*), *fârow* and *far* (*fearh*), *fûrrow* (*furh*), *billow* (Old-norse *bylgia*, Danish *bølge*), *fóllow* (*folgjan*), *hârraw* (*herjan*, *hergjan*), *willow* (*vilig*, *velig*), *sállow* (*salig*). *Ow* and *y* are often interchanged in Modern-English, as in the Adjective termination *holy* and *hállow* (*hâlig*, Old-English *haligh*, *halegh*, Plural *halewes*) and otherwise; *felly* and even *felloe* substituted for *felg*, *felge*; *béllow* and *belly* come from *belg*, *belig* = *bulga*, yet the Old-norse *belgr* = *follis*, *bulga* = *venter*; *colly* and *cóllow* signify soot; and popularly we hear *berry* pronounced instead of *bárraw*, (Anglosaxon *bearu*, *-ves* = *nemus*?). *Ow* also interchanges with *ough*, see above. *Window* points to the Old-norse *windauga*. For *féllow*, Old-English *fellow*, the Anglosaxon form *felav* is cited.

U, in general represents the sound of a short *û* and of the diphthong *iu*, in Germanic words, however, the former; in Romance, Latin-greek and others, the latter in an open syllable, as well as where a mute *e* follows the final consonant. Many *o* also appear in the present language as a short English *û*; Old-English often employed *o* in the place of the short *û*, both in Germanic and Romance words,

of which the latter mostly contain *o*, along with *u*, *ou*. Compare *thomb*, *dombe* (dumb), *gomme* (gum), *gonne* (gun), *doke* (duck), *walnote*, *moche* (much), *sotel* (subtle), *sodeinly*, *bokeler* (buckler) &c.

The Anglosaxon *u* remains *u* as an English *ū* in a syllable closed by a consonant: *sun* (sunne), *stun* (stunjan), *spur* (spura, spora), *up* (upp), *cup* (cupp, also copp), *dub* (dubban), *gut* (guttas), *thumb* (puma), *dumb* (the same), *hunt* (huntjan), *sprung* (sprungen), *swung* (svungen), *drunk* (druncen), *stunk* (stuncen), *turf* (turf), *curse* (cursjan, corsjan), *dust* (the same), *tusk* (tusc, tux), *under* (the same), *sunder* (sunderjan), *thunder* (punor); *summer* (sumor), *furrow* (furf); in some words the sound has been preserved as a short Highdutch *ū*, especially before *l*: *pull* (pulljan), *bullock* (buluca), *full* (full).

Where the Anglosaxon *y* is at the basis, the Old-English has also *i* (*y*) and *e*: *murder* (myrðrjan), *murk* (myrc), *bury* (byrgan, byrgēan = sepelire), *burden* (byrðen), *busy* (bysig, biseg), *butt* (bytt), *thrush* (pryscē), *shut* (scyttan), *shrub* (scrybū), *stubbe* (stybb), *stunt* (styntan), *church* (cyrice), *churl*, *churly*, *churlish* (ceorl, ceorlic, cyrlie) and others; Old-English: *mirk*, *stibborne* (stubborn), *chirche* &c.; *besy*, *shetten*, *stenten*, *cherche*, *cherl* &c.; so too the Old-Scotch, and even in the Modern-English *mickle* alongside of *much* (micel, mycel, mucel); *busy* still has *i* in pronunciation, *bury* *e* at least.

The Anglosaxon *ū* and *ŷ* often represent themselves as *u*: *uder* (ūder, ūdr), *plum* (plūme), *shun* (scūnjau, sceōnjan), *utmost* (ūtemest, ŷtemest), *husband* (hūsbonða), Old-English *housbonde*, *husbonde*, *bulk* (Old-norse *búlki*), *blush* (blŷsjan, Old-Highdutch *blūsigōn*) with an unusual transmutation of *s* into *sh*.

The Anglosaxon *eó* answers to *ū* in Ludlow (Leódhlāw; hlæw, hlāw = agger), *rud* (reóð), alongside of *red*, Anglosaxon *reád*.

More rarely other Anglosaxon vowels pass into *ū*, as *ó* in *rudder* (rōðer = remus), *gum* (gōma), or *o*, *e*, *ē* under the influence of a following *r*: *murder* (mordur), *burst*, *bursten* (bēstan, borsten), where the form of the preterite *burst* (burston) may exercise influence, *churn* (cernan) see below; *ed* in *shuttle* (sceátel).

Other forms, as *gust* (gist), *rush* (hriscjan = vibrare?) go back to a primitive *u*, Old-norse *gustr* = procella, *hrysc* = irruptio, Gothic *hruskan*; the present *run* (rinnan) has been assimilated to the preterite (*ran*, *runnon*; *runnen*). The words *dull*, *such* (dval, dvol, dol and svile, svyle) Old-English *swiche* have softened *v* into *u*; compare the Old-norse subst. *dul*, *dulr*.

Huge appears with *u* (iū) diphthong. It seems to belong to *hyge* = mens, *hygian*, compare the Old-norse *hugadr* = audax; the older English has here a short *ū*: the *hudge* olifaunt (SKELTON l. 365). Also *truth* has a long *ū* as belonging to *true* (treóvðo, trŷvð), Old-English also *trouthe*.

The Old-French *o*, *u*, *ou* frequently passes in a close syllable into *ū*, where it appears as a Modern-French *o*: *sum*, *summit* (som, sum; somme, sune), *plummet* (plom, plum; plommee), *number* (nombre, numbre), *umbrage* (ombrage, umbraige), *encumber* (en-

combrer, encumbrer), pump (pompe, Spanish and Portuguese bomba, pump); trumpet and trump (trompette, yet the Old-Highdutch trumpa), tunny (thon, Latin thynnus), fund (fond, fund), plunge (to plom, plum, Modern-French plonger), dungeon alongside of donjon (donjon, dungun, doignon, Medieval-Latin dongio, Irish daingean, fastening), trunk (tronc), juggle (jogler, jugler = joculari), brush (broce, broche, brosse), Tuscan (Toscan), truck (troquer, Spanish substantive trueco), mostly pointing to a primitive *u*.

The Old-French *o*, *u*, *ou*, Modern-French *ou*: fur (Substantive forre, foure, fuerre, verb forrer, fourrer), incur (corre, curre, courre), furnace (for, Modern-French fournaise), furnish, furniture (fornir, furnir, prov. also formir, fromir to the Old-Highdutch frumjan), purple (porpre, pourpre), furbish (forbir, furbir to the Old-Highdutch furban, furbjan), curve (corber, curver), curt (cort, curt, court, Latin curtus, Old-Highdutch churz), curtain (cortine, curtine, cour-tine), purse (borse, bourse), nurse, nurture (norir, nurir, noriture; noretur), supper (soper, super, souper), glut, glutton (gloz, glos, glous, gloton &c.), mutton (molton, mouton, muton, Medieval-Latin multo), truss (trosser, trusser), mustard (moutarde from the Latin mustum), mustache (moustache), musket (moschete, mouskete), budge = to stir (bouger), budget (bogette, bougette belonging to bulga = valise), buckler (bocler, bucler, bouclier). Some of these words likewise mostly pointing to a primitive *u* have the full short *u*-sound: pulley (poulie, although belonging to the Anglosaxon pull-jan), pullet (poulet), push (pousser, Spanish puxar), butcher (boucher to boch, bouc, Cymric bwch); pudding (boudin? Cymric pwding and potten).

The Old-French *o*, *u*, *ou*, Modern-French *eu*: demur (demorer, demurer, demourer).

A short *ü* has sometimes arisen from *ui*, *oi*, although even these occasionally present collateral forms in *u* in Old-French: cull (cuillir, coillir, cueillir), crush (croissir, cruissir, Medieval-Latin cruscire), usher (huissier, also ussier), frush = to crush (froisser, fruisser), punter (pointeur, Old-French point, point), punch, puncheon (poinçon), bushel [sounding with *ü*] (boisseau, Medieval-Latin bustellus). Compare Usk, a borough in Brecknockshire (Old-Cymric Uisc, Wysc, Latin Isca); also in some measure Dutch (Duitsch).

u appears to have sprung from *i* in umpire, properly an odd, third person (impair, since in PIERS PLOUGHMAN nounpere occurs instead of it p. 97), compare succory (chicoree, Latin cichorium); likewise out of *e* in summons (semonse) and in urchin (hérisson = erinaceus), urchone in Palgrave, on account of the following *r*, as in turpentine (tereenthina), burgamot along side of bergamot, and in Old-England lurne instead of learn, urthe instead of earth, see HALLIWELL s. v. and others. Compare above *ü* before *r* in Anglosaxon words. Moreover hirchen occurs instead of urchin.

The diphthong *iü* appears in the open syllable or that lengthened by a mute *e*, mostly in Romance words and others out of a primitive *u* not effaced by the intermediate language; the *i* which sounds before it in English is only encumbered by preceding liquid letters: fume (fum), mule (mul, mule), pure (pur), dupe, mute (mut, mu), rude,

use (us, verb user), muse (muser), duke (duc, duch); plume, prude, truant (truant, truander, Cymric tru, truan, Medieval-Latin trutanus, -danus, -anus).

Out of *eû*, with rejection of the *e* arise sure (segur, seür, Modern-French sûr), rule (reule, riule, riegler, compare Anglosaxon *rēgol*, *regul*, *reogol*); a diphthong *û* also answers to the Old-French *o*, *u*, *ou*, Modern-French *eu*, in fuel (fu, fou, feu), bury is the Modern-French *beurré*; like *oi*, Modern-French *eu*, in lure, allure (loire, loirre, Modern-French *leurre*; loirer, Modern-French *leurrer*, Middle-Highdutch *luoder*); *ue*, *ui* in puny (pues, puis-ré); it is equivalent to the French *iau* in pule (piauler, Italian *pigolare*). Prune = to lop, Old-English *proine*, also *proigne*, points to the French *provigner*, to propagate.

In an unaccented syllable no peculiarities take place, except that in the final syllable of the words inorganic *u*'s have sometimes crowded in, as in *léisure* (*loisir*, *leisir*), Old-English also *leyser*, *pléasure* (*plaisir*, *plisir*, *plesir*); the Old-English often interchanges in the unaccented syllable with *e*, *y*, *u* like even the Anglosaxon, especially before the *r*, compare the Old-English *other* and *othur*. On the shortening of the sound in pronunciation see above.

Ue shews itself with the sound of *u* diphthong, which is only prejudiced after liquid letters; *e* appears in *oe* as a sign of production at the end of a syllable. In Old-English we find *ew*, *ewe* instead of *ue*: *trew*, *rew*, *sew* (compare *ensue*): *trew*, *sew*; thus even now *clew* and *clue* &c. are found alongside of each other. See above.

The Anglosaxon *eōv*, *eov* and *ir* give *ue*: *rue* = sorrow (*hreōv*, verb *hreōvan*), *true* (*treōve*), *hue* (*heōv*, *hiv*), *blue* (*bleoh*, *bleov*, *bleō*, *bliō*), *Tuesday* (*Tivesdæg*), Old-English *Tiseday*.

The Old-French *ev*, *iv* likewise: *ensue*, *pursue* (the simple verb *sew* in Old-English = *sevre*, *sivre* &c.); but also *u* and *ue*: *glue* (*gluz*, *glut*), *due* (*du*, Modern-French *dû*), *rue* (*rue*, on the other hand Anglosaxon *rûde*), *oe*, *eu*: *cue* (*coe*, *queue*, *queue*); *ui*: *subdue* (*sosduire*, *souduire*) with resumption of the Latin form of the prefix.

In unaccented syllables of Romance words *ue* often stands, where originally *u* or *ue* lies at the root: *rescue* verb and substantive (*rescorre*, *rescurre*, *rescoure*), alongside of which as a substantive *rescous* (*rescosse*, *-usse*, *-ousse*) occurs; *ague*, *feber* (*agu*, *ague*, Medieval-Latin *acuta*), *tissue* (*tissu*), *issue* (*issue*, *oissue*), *détinue*, *rétinue* (*de-*, *retenu*), *value* (*value*); *argue*, *construe* (*arguer*, *construire*) may lean immediately on the Latin; *venue*, also *vény* = Italian *stoccata*, comes from the French *venue*, on the other hand *venue*, alongside of *visne*, is mutilated from *visnet*, *visnes*, alongside of *veisinitet*, *veisinte*, belonging to *voisin*, *veisin*.

Ui, **uy** sometimes stand to denote a vowel sound, in which case one or the other vowel may be regarded as mute. The pronunciation of *ui* as a diphthongal or at least as a long *u* is old. Gower rhymes *deduit* with *frute* (HALLIWELL s. v. *deduit*).

No Anglosaxon word has *ui* as a long *û* (*iû*), except *bruise* (*brýsan* = *conterere*); on the other hand many Romance ones, in which it either rests upon *ui*, *iû*, as in *suit* (*suite*, *siute*, *seute*),

pursuit, nuisance (noisance, nuisance), fruit, cruise (belonging to crois, cruiz, cruix), or to *u*: juice (jus), recruit (recruter), sluice (escluse, Hollandish sluis, Middle-Highdutch sliuze, Medieval-Latin exclusa).

Apart from the shortening of *ui* to *i* in unaccented syllables (see pronunciation) *ui* appears as *i* in build, Old-English bilden, belden, dialectically in North-England beeld, beldynge (SKELTON l. 385), compare the Hollandish beelden; the Anglosaxon is *biliðe* = *imago*; *u* has been subsequently inserted.

uy diphthong as *ei* in buy (Anglosaxon bycgan), Old-English buggen, byen and bien, Old-Scotch by, the compound aby even in Shakespeare (abycgan = redimere).

The cases wherein in Anglosaxon and Romance words *ui* is hardened into *vi* in pronunciation, rest either, after Gutturals, on an Anglosaxon *vi*, as quick (cvic); as *ve* as *ue* appears in quell (cveljan), *va* as *ua* &c. quake (cvacjan) and others; or upon *ui* in Romance, Latin and other words (as *ue* upon *ue*, *ua* upon *ua*, *uo* upon *uo* &c.), compare quiver (couire, cuevre, cuivre, on the other hand the Anglosaxon cocor), cuish and cuisse (cuisse) &c. On the other hand quince reminds us of the French coing, Latin cydonius, whereas the French cointe gives the English quaint. See under *q*.

In quill the French quille, Old-Highdutch kegil is at the root, mingled with the Old- and Middle-Highdutch kil (= caulis) and the Old-Highdutch chiol, Anglosaxon ceole.

Even in the unaccented syllable the sound grounded upon *ui* appears: anguish (angoisse, anguisse) &c. In distinguish the verbal termination has passed into the form of the French verbs in *ir* with -iss, Latin isc-ere, inserted.

Origin of the Consonants.

We consider the consonants here not strictly according to their vocal relations; but, where the same vocal sign belongs to more than one class of sounds, we comprehend the various sounds under the class to which the sign originally belonged. We do not here regard separately the words brought over immediately from ancient or modern tongues, since in those a transmutation of sounds rarely comes under consideration, and they generally conform to the most general rule.

1. The nasal and the liquid sounds *m*, *n*, *l*, *r*.

M answers to a primitive *m* in Anglosaxon and Romance words: milk (miluc), mare, nightmare (mara), grim (grimm), swarm (svearm); — mace, a club (mace, mache), murmur (murmurer), remain (remaindre, remanoir). Before *n*, *m* is preserved in Romance and Latin words, when the final *n* is, however, silent, or to be regarded as assimilated (see above at page 67): remnant (remanant), solemn (solempne), hymn, automn.

m often springs out of *n*; thus after an initial *s* in smack (Anglosaxon snace, Old-norse snâkr = navis genus, Hollandish smak,

French semaque). Especially *n* before lipsounds *p* and *b*, in Germanic and Celtic words in *m*, is transformed into *n*: hemp (hanep, hānep), hamper along with hanaper (Medieval-Latin hanaperium), Bamborough (Bebbanburh), Cambridge (Old-English Cantebrigge), Cymbeline (Latin Cunobelinus), Dumbarton (Celtic Dun-Breton, castle of the Britons). Even in Romance words *m* stands for *n* before an inserted *p*, which in Modern-French has again been cast out: tempt (tenter, tempteir), attempt; so too before *f*, where French preserves *n*: comfort (conforter), comfit alongside of confect, confiture. Compare Pomfret (Old-English Pountfreit in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER).

This happens also before other consonants and vowels: brimstone (Swedish bernsten), Montgomery (Mongon-byrry) (PERCY Rel. p. 4.), Latimer, an appellation of the interpreter Wrenoc ap Merrick (= latin interpreter).

m instead of *n* is particularly frequent at the end of Romance words: lime (Anglosaxon lind) Old-English lynde, linde, in the Craven-Dialect lin, lyne; maim (mahaigner from mahain, compare the Anglo-saxon bemancjan = truncan, Medieval-Latin mahemiare), random (randon) compare a gret randoun (MAUNDEV. p. 238), ransom (raançon, raiancon), Old-English rancon, ramson (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), venom (even venin, venim) compare envenom (envenimer), megrim (migraine), badigem alongside of badigeon (French the same), perform (par-fornir, -furnir) compare perfournen (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 291), Old-Scotch perfurneis, originally *m* containing, Old-Highdutch frumjan, compare Anglosaxon fremman; vellum (velin), marjoram (Italian majorana, French marjolaine).

Old-English had often *m* at the end of the word, for instance Kaym, Caym instead of Cain, bothum (bouton) and others, dialectically brim instead of bring (eastern dialect). Summerset, somerset and somersault are corrupted from the Old-French soubresaut; in malmsey *m* has taken the place of *r*, Old-English malvesy (malvoisie), but it rather stands with a view to Monembasia.

N arises out of the Anglosaxon and Romance *n*: nine (nigon), winter (vinter), wen (venn), dun (dunn = fuscus); — nurture (noriture, norreture), language (langage), tense (tens, tans, Modern-French temps), Old-English dan (dans, dant = dominus), count (cuens, conte, cunte together with cumte), noun (nom, noun, non); on the other hand renowmd for renowned is still found in Spenser and Marlowe.

As *m* from *n*, so conversely *n* often proceeds from *m*, as even in Old-French in some examples just quoted: ant = emmet (Anglosaxon æmete), Benfleet (Beámfleót) in Essex; Dornford was formerly called Dormceaster; the ancient Rûmcofa is now called Runckhorn, Hants stands alongside of Hampshire (Hâmscire). In Old-English from stands instead of from; paynen (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 119) along with paynym and others.

n has sometimes taken the place of *l*: banister has arisen out of the French baluster, balustre. Compare the dialectic win instead of will in Modern-English. See under *l*.

L has been preserved in Anglosaxon and Romance words: little (lytel, adverb lytle), lock (locc = cirrus), slumber (slumerjan), glisten (glisnjan), wallow (vealovjan, vealvjan, valvjan), welter (from veltan), halt (healtjan), whole (hāl), till (tiljan); — limmer (limier), lodge (loger), parliament (parlement), false (fals, fax, faus), cattle (catel).

Although frequently silent before consonants (see page 67), *l* has been often preserved in Anglosaxon, as also in Old-French words, where Modern-French has rejected it, and even Old-French admitted the rejection with the substitution of *u* for *l*, compare fault (falte, faute), assault (assalt, assaut), vessel (vaissel, vaissiaus), castle (castel, castiaus). Forms with and without *l* are still occasionally found alongside of each other: powder and poulder [unusual] (poldre, puldre, poudre) &c.

l has sometimes taken the place of *r*: marble (marbre, compare Spanish marmol, Highdutch marmelstein) marbreston even ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. p. 476. Anglosaxon marmarstân; purple (porpre, yet even in Anglosaxon purple = purpureus, as in Anglosaxon turtle = turtur); gilliflower has been deformed out of giroflée (also geraflour) that is caryophyllum. Hobbledehoy neither man nor boy is said to have arisen from Sir Hobbard de Hoy. Salisbury has supplanted Saresbury (see HALLIWELL s. v.) compare the spot hard by Old Sarum, Latin Sorbiodunum. At the end *l* stands thus in laurel (laurier), Old-English laurer, lorer in Chaucer and Gower.

Other *l* have even in Old-French arisen out of a primitive *r* and have persisted in English, while no longer appearing in Modern-French: temple (Old-French temple, Latin tempora, Modern-French tempe), fortalice, obsolete instead of fortress (Old-French fortellesce alongside of fortieresce, forterece, Medieval-Latin fortalitium).

Flavour has proceeded from the Old-French flair, flairor, belonging to flairer, Latin fragrare. In Old-English and Old-Scotch it sounds fleure.

In proper names, such as Hally (Henry, Harry), Doll, Dolly (Dorothy), Molly (Mary) &c. *l* often appears for *r*.

l sometimes stands for *n*, as in Martlemas in Shakspeare instead of Martinmas. Dialectically we find chimley, chimbly instead of chimney. Could lunch, luncheon, nunchion, also have proceeded dialectically from nunch, noon, (nona)?

R is mostly preserved in Anglosaxon, Romance and other words: rich (ric), ram (ramm), proud (prût), blind (blind), trap (treppe), crib (cribbe), spring (springan), stream (streám), start (steort, steart = spina), church (cyrice), star (steorra); — river (rivière), realm (realme, reaume), preach (precher, prechier), brief (bref, brief), trace (tracier, tracer), grant (graanter, granter along with creanter, craanter), pork (porc) &c.

r has taken the place of *l*: lavender (Medieval-Latin lavendula, Italian lavendola). In Shakspeare Argier stands instead of Algiers (Temp. 1, 2); sinoper alongside of sinople, Old-English and Old-Scotch synoper. -eir and synople, Old-French sinople, the green colour in a coat of arms, are the same words: there is said to

have been a red and a green pigment from Sinope (called sinoplum, Old-Latin *sinōpis*). See Diez's Etymological Dictionary page 725. The obsolete *surbeat*, *surbet* and the verb *surbate* point to the French *solbatu*, wounded in the sole of the foot.

r takes the place of *n* or *m* in the popular pronunciation in *charfron*, alongside of *chanfrin* and *champfrein*, French *chanfrein*; in *glitter* (Anglosaxon *glitnjan*) a new derivational termination *er* has rather taken the place of *n*, *en*.

2. The Lipsounds *p*, *b*, *f*, *ph*, *v*, *w*.

P must often give place to *b*; at the beginning of Anglosaxon words it mostly pointed to a foreign origin, but it was frequent in the middle and at the end. Where it appears in English it mostly perseveres in its pristine form, although, dialectically, for instance, in Gloucestershire, it often yields to *b*: pitch (*pic*), pepper (*pipor*, *pēpor*), pull (*pulljan*), plight (*pliht*), priest (*preōst*), slippery (*slipur*), apple (*appel*, *āpl*), wipe (*vīpjan*, *vipjan*), cramp (*cramp*), sharp (*scearp*); — pity (*pite*, *piteit*), pious (*pūs*, *pīos*), pledge (*plege*, *pleige*), prophesy (*prophecier*), strain (*straindre*), chapter (*chapitre*), escape (*eschaper*, *escaper*), apt (French *apte*, Latin *ap-tus*). It rarely appears where it has become silent, except where it was only inserted. The former is the case in receipt, as well as formerly in deceive (Old-French usually *recet*, yet also *recepteir* along with *receter*).

Here and there *p* has proceeded from *b* at the beginning of a word: purse (Old-French *burse*, even in Old-Highdutch *pursa*), on the contrary disburse, reimburse, else also disburse; pudding (*boudin*?); pearch, perch, (Anglosaxon *bears*) is to be reduced to the French *perche*; in the middle of a word in apricot (French *abricot*, Italian *albercocco*); at the end of Anglosaxon words: Shropshire (Scrobescire), crump (crumb); gossip (from *sibb*, English *sib*) instead of godsib, Old-English *gossib*. Thus in Old-English *warderope* is found instead of *garderobe*.

p has arisen out of *ph* in trump, French *triomphe*.

In proper names *p* often stands along with *m*: Peg, Peggy instead of Meg, Margaret; Pat, Patty instead of Mat, Martha; Polly instead of Molly from Mary.

B mostly rests upon a primitive Anglosaxon or Romance *b*, and has been preserved even when silent: bid (*biddan*), bang (Old-norse *bānga* = pulsare), black (*blāc*), brass (*brāss*), web (*vebb*), dub (*dubban*, compare the Old-French *dober*, *duber*, *adober*), climb (*climban*); — beast (*beste*, *beeste*), combat (*combatre*), blandish (*blan-dir*), brawn (*braon*, *braion* = *partie charnue du corps*), bran (*bren*, Modern-French *bran*, but the Cymric *brân*), tomb (*tombe*), alb (Latin *alba*, French *aube*). The English retains in many words the *b* rejected in French, such as debt (*dete*), doubt (*doter*, *duter*, *douter*); moreover this *b* was not unknown even in Old-French.

b has sometimes arisen out of *p*, mostly in the middle and at the end of a word: lobster (*loppestre*, *lopystre* = *locusta marina*), a collateral form thereof is *lopuster*; dribble (belonging to *dreō-*

pan); limber = pliable alongside of limp = weak, pliant (belonging to the English to limp, compare the Anglosaxon lemphealt = claudus, lempe = lenitas, fragilitas, Highdutch Glimpf); slab = viscous (to the Old-norse slapp = lutum); knob, Old-English knop (Old-norse knappr = globulus; compare the Anglosaxon cnäpp = jugum, English knap). Even Skelton and Spencer have libbard, lybbard instead of leopard. Modern-English has at the commencement of a word bandore alongside of pandore; in the middle cabriole alongside of capriole.

Instead of *w* (Anglosaxon *v*) stands *b* in Bill, Billy from William (Vilhelm); brangle alongside of wrangle (to the Anglosaxon vringan); compare the Lowdutch bërwolf instead of wërwolf.

For *h* and *r*, *b* enters in bumble-bee (BEAUM. and FLETCH) instead of humble-bee, compare the Highdutch Hummel, swiss. Bummel, and Bob, Bobby, like Hob for Rob, Robin, Robert.

F arises from the Anglosaxon and Romance *f*, which, however, are retained only at the beginning and end of a word, and that mostly with persistency, and in the middle of a word, are wont to have place in reduplication or when attached to a following consonant. At the end of a word *v* commonly appears for it, when it is followed by a mute *e*, according to the French process, yet here the language has not remained consistent. The dialectical confounding of *f* with *v* is widely diffused.

A primitive *f* at the beginning and end of a word: fickle (ficol), far (feorr, feor), flesh (flæsc), frame (fremman = facere, perficere), thief (þeóf, þéf), hoof (hóf); — fillet (filet), fail (faillir, falir), flame (flame, flamme, verb flamer), fruit (fruit, frui), chief (chef, chief).

Reduplicated in the middle and at the end of a word, as well as when attached to a following consonant, although here sometimes silent: stiff (stif) and verb stiffen, cliff (clif, cliof), distaff (distāf), swift (svift), fifth (fifta), twelfth (tvelfta); — coffin (cofin), caitiff (chaitif, caitif), plaintiff (plaintif), enfeoff (fiever, fiefer), scaffold (escafaut, eschafaut), falchion (falchon, fauchon).

In many Anglosaxon words the final consonant *f* before a mute *e* has remained: life (lif), wife (vif), knife (cnif); as in Romance: strife (estrif), safe (salf, sauf, compare the verb salver, saver), which in Old-English used still to be sounded lif, wif, knif, strif, saaf. In the inflection of these as well as of other words in *f*, *v* certainly appears before the vowel *e*, as was usual, even in Old-English. Many have still frequently a final *f* or *fe* in Old-English, to which Modern-English has given *ve*, as gaf, yaf (gave), drof (drove), shrof (shrove), strof (strove) and others. On the other hand Modern-English words are found with a final *ff*, to which in Old-English *ve* used to be given in Old-English, as sheriff (Anglosaxon scire-gerēfa), Old-English reeve, shereve.

In the derivatives of words in *f*, *f* is partly preserved before vowels, as in turfy, chiefage (Old-French chevage, poll tax), leafy (full of leaves), leafage, even leafed (having leaves), elfish, safely, while we also find elvish, wively, wivehood &c. alongside of them. Even inflective forms sometimes fluctuate, as in stāves,

now frequently staffs, where Old-English mostly offers only one *f* in the singular, while having *v* in the plural. In collision with a consonant in inflection *v* is transmuted into *f*: bereft along with bereaved.

Particles prefixed do not alter the primitive initial sound, as in afore, afield &c.

f hardly ever arises out of *b*: draff answers to the Anglosaxon drabbe, grains, alongside of which stands drōf = turbidus, sordidus.

f proceeds from *g*, as the guttural *gh* has sometimes assumed the pronunciation of *f*: dwarf (pveorg), in Old-English still dwerghes in Mandeville and durwe (WEBER), in Western dialects durgan. The interchange of *h* (in English otherwise *gh*) with the vocal sign *f* is in Modern-English still to be met with here and there: draft alongside of draught (drōht from dragan), as conversely clough = ravine seems to belong to the Anglosaxon clūfan, which in Old-English stands also for cliff (clif, cliof = rupes), and in Highdutch sichten corresponds to the English sift (siften) (see *gh*). Shaft in the meaning of schacht corresponds to this Highdutch word, but has xafetus alongside of schachta in Medieval-Latin for its support.

In Old-English the substitution of *f* for *gh* is frequent: dofty = daughter (RITSON), caufte = caught; thofe = though (HALLIWELL s. v.); dialects of the present day offer thoft = thought, thruff = through. In Old-English *ȝ* even occasionally stands along with *f* instead of *gh*: strazfte = straight (HALLIWELL Early Hist. of Freemasonry p. 14.).

f is also occasionally substituted for a primitive Greek *ph*, partly according to French precedent, although sometimes both stand alongside of each other. Thus we spell fantasm and phantasm, frenzy and phrensy, frantic and phrenetic, fantom (Old-French fantosme) and phantom, but always fancy (fantaisie).

Ph, where it has not been changed into *f*, remains faithful to the Greek-Latin spelling, as in philosophy.

It has sometimes arisen out of a final *f*; gulph stands along with gulf (French golfe, Greek κόλπος), Guelphs along with Guelfs; also in the middle of a word: cipher, decipher (French chiffre, Medieval-Latin ciffara, from the Arabic safar and sifr = zero).

ph for *v* is striking, as in nephew (neveu), Old-English newew, newew, and in naphew along with navew (navet from the Latin naps).

Old-English often confounds *p* with *ph*, as in Phiton (Python). This and other displacements, as Baphomet (Mahomet) belong in general to the middle ages, compare the Medieval-Latin Bafumaria, Baphumet &c.

V, which, at the beginning of a word, unites with no other consonant, and never appears at the end without *e* is, in its Latin and Romance sound, a letter foreign to Anglosaxon (the Anglosaxon *v*, for which in English *w* is substituted, representing another sound) and corresponding to the Romance and Latin *v*: villany (vilanie, vilenie), very (verai, vrai), vanquish (vaincre, vendre), vaunt (vanter, venter), divers (divers).

The collateral form of vetch (French vesce, Latin vicia, com-

pare the Old-Highdutch *wicce*), which sounds *fitch*, is striking, as to which may be observed, that the Latin *v* is, in Anglosaxon, occasionally rendered by *f*; compare the Anglosaxon *serfis*, Latin *servitium* (see below, on Old-English). No less striking is the appearance of the initial *r* for the Anglosaxon *f* in *vat*, *alevat* (*fāt*, *ealofāt*) alongside of *fat*, since the initial Anglosaxon *f* is else preserved. Thus, also *vixen* is still in use for the Anglosaxon *fixen*. The Old-English certainly in its earliest forms often admits *r* (*u*), instead of *f* at the beginning of a word; compare *uorþ* = *forth*, *vewe* = *few* and others in Robert of Gloucester.

Moreover the English sometimes allows words in *r* of Romance stock to run parallel with others in *w*, partly with a variety of meaning, as *vine*, French *vin*, and *wine* (Anglosaxon *vin*), hence *viny* = *abounding in vines* and *winy* = *having the taste or quality of wine*, as to which *vineyard* has taken the place of the Anglosaxon *vingeard*, *vineard*.

v stands in the middle of a word between vowels or after a preceding consonant, and at the end of a word before a mute *e*, where likewise it may be preceded by a consonant, instead of the Anglosaxon *f*: *even* (*ēfen*), *evening* (*æfnung*). *oven* (*ofen*), *navel* (*na-fola*, *nafela*), *rāven* (*hrāfen*), *hovel* (*hofel*); *anvil* (*filt*, *anfilt*), Old-English *anvelt*; *silver* (*silfor*); *weave* (*vēfan*), *knave* (*cnapa*, *cnafa*), *glove* (*glōf*); *drive* (*drifan*), *hive* (*hyfe*), *delve* (*dēlfan*), *twelve* (*twelf*).

In Old-English *f* is also often preserved between vowels, as in *drife* (*drive*), *shrive* (*shrive*), *delfe* (*delve*), *dowfes* (*doves*) (TOWNELEY MYSTER.), as the Romance *r* also sometimes passes over into *f*: *reprefe* (*reprover* or the Anglosaxon *prōfjan*?), *soferand* (*sovereign*),

Instead of a Greek-Latin *ph* a *r* is used often to appear, thus in Spencer, Shakspeare and the moderns, as Byron: *vial* = *phial*; *visnomy* = *physiognomy*.

b is here and there transmuted into *v*, yet here mostly in Anglosaxon *f* is found along with *b*: *have* (*habban*), *live* (*libban*, but also *lifjan*), *heave* (*hebban*, Gothic *hafjan*); the forms *habben* and *libben* are not unknown to Old-English (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER and PIERS PLOUGHMAN).

Many names in which the Romans heard *b* have in Celtic and Anglosaxon become *f*, and are now represented by *v*: *Severn* (Cymric *Hafren*, Anglosaxon *Sāfern*, Latin *Sabrina*), *Dover* (Latin *Dubris* *Dubrae*), *Reculver* (*Regulbium*), *Tovy* (*Tobius*), *Abergavenny* (*Gobannium*).

v in *wave* has proceeded from a primitive *g*. Anglosaxon *væg*, *vêg* and the verb *vagjan*, Old-French *woge*, Modern-French *vague*; Old-English and Old-Scotch have namely the form *wawe*, plural *wawis*, *wawghes* in TOWNELEY MYSTER. and thus according to Caxton, compare the Danish *vove*.

The second *v* in "*velvet*" (Old-French *velluan*, compare Italian *velluto*, belonging to the Latin *villus*), is to be regarded as a *u* hardened into *v*.

W comes under consideration here only as a Semivowel, as indeed originally it is perhaps to be always regarded as a semivowel sound.

Its at present extinct or vocalized sound is, as a consonant, not quite to be made out; yet its interchange with the guttural, which has passed into the lipsound (ynow and ynough, thorow and thorough) in Old-English, which also might frequently be assumed for the *gh* extinct in pronunciation, points to its having sounded as a lipsound (like the Highdutch *w* before consonants and not differing much from *f*, when at the end of a word).

W springs from the Anglosaxon *r*, and has been preserved before the consonant *r* in writing, where it is already completely without import for the pronunciation: winter (vinter), wed (veddjan), wash (vascan); wring (vringan), wren (vrenna); after a dental, too, it is usually preserved: twinkle (tvincljan), dwell (Old-English *dvelja* = *morari*, Anglosaxon *dveljan*, *dvellan* = *errare*), dwindle (Old-norse *dvína* = *detumescere*, Anglosaxon *dvīnan*, *tabescere*), thwart (pveorh), Old-English *thwang* (TOWNELEY MYST. p. 166), Modern-English *thong* (pvang = *corrigia*), sweet (svête), Old-English *sote*, swift (svift), evenhere partly lost in pronunciation: two (twá). On the other hand the Anglosaxon *cv* has mostly passed over into *qu* (see *q*), *hr* has been transmuted into *wh* by transposition (see *Metathesis*).

So far as the Romance *g* or *gu*, also spelt *w*, corresponds to the Old-Highdutch *w*, and the Gothic and Anglosaxon *v*, *w* likewise takes its place in English also: wicket (wiket, guischet from the Old-norse *vik* = *recessus*, Anglosaxon *vic* = *recessus*, *portus*); wait (gaiter, gueiter Old-Highdutch *wahtên*), wafer (gaufre, Medieval-Latin *gafrum*); warrant (garant, guarant, warant and the verb *garantir*, *warantir*, Old-Highdutch *werên*), warren (garenne, Medieval-Latin *wareнна*); wastel (gastel, gastial, Middle-Highdutch *wastel*, Modern-French *gâteau*), reward (reguerredoner, rewerdoner, Medieval-Latin *widerdonum* compared with the Anglosaxon *viðerleán*) along with *guerdon*; wage, wager (Substantive *gage*, *wage* and *gageure*, verb *gager*, *wager*, Medieval-Latin *vadium*, *quadium*; *invadiare* &c. related to the Anglosaxon *vedd* to the Gothic *vadi* = a pledge), Old-English *warish* (garir, Modern-French *guérir*, related to the Anglosaxon *varjan*), *guarish* (SPENSER).

Romance forms are occasionally employed alongside of others which go back to Anglosaxon words: guise and wise (Anglosaxon *vise*), especially in the compound *otherguise* and *otherwise*; guimpe and wimple (Old-Highdutch *wimpal*), guile, beguile (Old-French *guile*, *guille*, verb *guiler* &c.), Old-English *gile*, *gyle*, and *wile* (Anglosaxon *vile*); guard substantive and verb, guardian (Old-French *garde*, *warde*, *garde* &c.) and ward (substantive *veard*, verb *veardjan*), as to which, forms like *warden*, *wardrobe* approximate more closely to the French form. Even *engage* and the like stand alongside of *wage* without the *g*'s being retransmuted into *v*.

W seldom appears for a Romance or Latin *r*, unless this has itself passed through an Anglosaxon *r*: *periwinkle* (French *per-venche*, Latin *pervinca*), Old-English *parvenke*, *pervinke*; similarly *cordwain*, *cordwainer* springs from the usual *cordovan*; where, in Celtic words, the Latin has *r*, a Cymric and Cornish *r* (*gu*, *gw*, *w* at the end of a word) is to be assumed: Winchester (*Venta*

Belgarum), Caerwent (Venta Silurum), Derwent (Derwentio), Wye (Vaga).

w in periwig is hardened from *u* (Italian perrucca, French perruque since the 15th century), now shortened into wig; perhaps also in periwinkle a sort of shellfish (Latin parunculus). Moreover *r* and *w* are provincially, as, for instance, in Kent and in London, often confounded.

3) The Tooothsounds *t*, *d*, *th*, *s*, *z*, *sh*, *j*;

T has for the most part been preserved from the Anglosaxon, Romance and Latin *t*; yet a primitive *t*, *d* and *th* often change places with one another.

t corresponds to the Anglosaxon *t* (Old-Highdutch *z*) and Old-French and Latin *t*: time (tīma), teasel and the verb tease (tæsel, tæsl, Old-Highdutch zeisala = carduus niger and the verb tæsan = vellicare), tale (talu), tool (tōl, trim (trymjan, trymman), trout (truht), trundle (tryndel = circulus, Lowdutch tründeln, also Anglosaxon Participle tryndeled), stair (stæger); eater (ætere), sister (sveostor), turtle (turtle); — bite (bitan), gate (geat, gat), beat (beäten), holt (holt), dust (dust), bought (boht); — tense (tens, tans), tabour (tabor), trench (trencher, trancher), strain (straindre), latten (laiton), attach (attacher), quit (quiter), port (port = portus and porte = porta) &c., even where a Romance and Latin *t* passes into the sibilant: nation (nation, nascion), oration &c. Here an interchange with *e* occasionally takes place: antient along with ancient (ancien, anchien).

Out of an Anglosaxon and Romance *d* there sometimes arises a *t*, especially at the end, but also in the middle of a word: Rep-ton (Hrepandûn), Bampton (Beamdûn), where a confusion with tûn was easy, etch = eddish (edisc); — antler (andouiller), part-ridge (perdrix); — at the end of a word after a vowel, more frequently after consonants: abbot (abbad, -od, -ud), want, a mole (vand), now little used, tilt (têld), girt along with gird (gyrdan); the clod interchanging with clot points to the Anglosaxon clûd = rupes, clûdig = saxosus; here belongs the transmutation of the verbal suffix *d* in the preterite and participle, in the syncope of the preceding vowel, into *t*; which, in Anglosaxon, was confined to stems ending in *c* (as *ht*), *p*, *t* and *x* (as *hs*), as in thought (pohte-poht), dipt along with dipped (dypte-dypt) &c. The Old-English carried this transmutation far; in Modern-English it again became gradually restricted. In the seventeenth century the syncope of the vowel, after the letters *p*, *f*, hard *th*, *k*, *c* and the hard hissers and sibilants *s*, *c*, *sh*, *ch* = *x*, sometimes also, after *m*, *n*, *l*, *r*, and which is now often denoted by an apostrophe, was often coupled with the hardening of *d* into *t*, if the vowel of the verb was short, and, occasionally with a vowel originally long. Modern-English restricts this transmutation in our days, only allowing it to appear after *gh*, *p* and *f*, after *s* (*ss*), but also after *m*, *n* and *l* in prose and mostly, only in a limited measure, as in thought, brought &c. after the Anglosaxon precedent in dipt, left (lêfde, lêfed), past (passed), blest (blessed, Anglosaxon blessôde, blessôd), mixt (mixed), pent (from

pen). learnt, burnt &c., dealt (dælde, dæled); as in a series of verbs ending in *nd*, the Anglosaxon inflection *-nde*, *-nded*, is still often transmuted into *nt*: sent (sende, sended), went (vende, vended) &c. and even after *ld* and *rd* the Anglosaxon inflection *-ldede*, *-lded*, *-rde*, *-rded*: gilt (gyldede, gylded), girt (gyrde, gyrded). Poetry, and, sometimes, Prose still as formerly uses the abridged forms in *t*, no longer approved by modern grammar, and omitted to be denoted by Lexicography, especially in verbs in *p*, *s* and *x*, as whipt, stept, stopt, dropt, prest, possest, crost, curst, nurst, fixt, vext &c. (See the Declension).

Old-English also in other words ending in *d* often transmutes this letter into *t*, for instance pousant, hondret, swert, hart (heard) and the like (in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER and others) and likewise the final *d* of the participle, which, together with the termination of the preterite *it*, instead of *id*, *ed* belongs in particular to the North-English and Old-Scotch dialects.

Instead of *p*, *ð* (= *th*), also instead of the Latin-Greek *th*, an initial and a final *t* stands, especially at the beginning of words not Anglosaxon: Tom alongside of Thomas, Tit (from *Θεόδωρος*), Taff (from *Θεόφιλος*); often in Old-English *teme* (= theme), *trone* (= throne) &c.; but at the beginning of a compound Anglosaxon word: nostril (naspyrl = nasi foramen) and likewise in *hustings* (Old-norse *hússþingi* = domestica consultatio); at the end in *theft* (þeóð), height (beáððo), Old-English heighth, and highth in Milton; dart (darðð, daròð) drought earlier and even still in the North of England drouth (drugaðð, drugòð), chit (cið = festuca from *cian* = germinare).

The interchange of *k* and *t* takes place in apricock and apricot on account of the French abricot and the Italian albercocco, Arabic alberquq; also bat, fluttermouse, Old-English bak, compare Danish *aftenbakke*, Scotch *bakie*, *bawkie*.

D primarily corresponds to the Anglosaxon and Romance *d*: dim (dimm), den (dene, denn = vallis), day (daga), dawn (dagjan), dock, tail, stump (Old-norse dockr), dock a plant (Anglosaxon docce), dock a quai (Swedish docka, Danish dokke, to the Medieval-Latin *doga*, French *douve*, also a canal, a moat), dry (dryge), dwindle (from *dvīnan* = tabescere); bladder (blædre), ladle (hlædle), abide (ábidan), kid (Old-norse kid), bind (bindan), child (cild), sward (sveard, Middle-Highdutch swarte); — delay (delai, verb *delaier*), delight (deleit, delit, verb *deleiter*, *deliter*), Old-English *deliten*, *delitable*, *delit*; damsel (damisele), dragon (dragon, dragun), demand (demander).

d has taken the place of *t*, yet hardly ever except at the beginning of a word, as, even in Anglosaxon, the initial *d* was sharply distinguished from *t* as well as from *p*: Paddy (from Patrick), dodkin (= doítkin, Hollandish duit), proud (prút), pride (prýta), in Old-English still prout and prute (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER). In the middle of a word the Anglosaxon had transmuted the Latin *t* into *d* in: læden, lēden = latinus, Old-English still has leden in the same signification. Here belongs also jeopardy, Old-English *jupertī* (DAME SIRIZ) *jeupertye* (GOWER) *jupartie*, *jupardie* (CHAUCER) (*jeu*

partis, divided game), card (French *carte*), discard (compare *escarter* fourteenth century), diamond (*diamant*); bud seems related to the French *bouter*, *bout*, *bouton*, compare the Italian *buttare*, to bud.

d is occasionally substituted for the Anglosaxon *p* (*ð*) even at the beginning of a word; in the middle the later Anglosaxon often has *d* instead of *ð*; at the end the Anglosaxon *ld* stood also for the Gothic *lp*; *d* and *ð*, also served to distinguish the adjective and substantive *dedd* (dead) and *deað* (death); dwarf (*preorg*), the obsolete *dorp* and *thorp* (*porp*, Lowdutch *dörp*), deck related to *thatch* (*peccan*), also the Scotch *deck*; burden (distinguished from *burden*, Old-English and Modern-French *bourdon*) alongside of *burthen* (*byrðen*), murder (*morður*) alongside of *murther*, Sudbury (*Sûðberh*), rudder (*roðer*), Old-English *rother*, fiddle (*fiðele*), Old-English *fiðelere* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 179), could (*cūðe*), Old-English *couthe*, pad alongside of *path* (*pāð*, *pad*), Old-English often *quod* instead of *quoð* (*cwāð*); maid (*māgeð*, *māgð* alongside of *māgden*, *māden* English maiden = *virgo*); snath, sneath, sneeth and snead, especially in the western dialects (*snæd*) scychehandle; *adeling* alongside of *Athelney* (*āðeling*, *Āðelingsigge*)

The frequent interchange of *th* with *d*, as *denk* instead of *think* (WEBER), *dere* instead of *there* (LANTOFF), *dis* instead of *this* (PERCY Rel.) and others, is Old-English and dialectical.

The *th* of ancient languages has also been changed into *d* in *Bedlam* from *Bethlehem*.

The mutilation of *Richard* into *Dick* may be compared with the converse mutilation of the Spanish *cedilla* in *cerilla*.

Th likewise serves to replace the Anglosaxon *p* and *ð*, the former whereof belonged essentially to the beginning, the latter to the middle and end of a word, like the *th* descended from the ancient tongues. The distinctions of sound of the harder *p* and the softer *ð* are in English only partly regarded in pronunciation. The sign *p* is found here and there preserved in the older English at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of a word, but interchanged early with *th*; the form *ȝ*, instead of *p* gave occasion to the substitution of *y* for this letter in writing and print; hence the lately usual abbreviations *y'*, *y*, *y'*, instead of *the*, *that*, *thou* and many more. The Cymric renders the hard sound by *th*, the soft by *dd*.

th as a substitute for *p* and *ð*: *thick* (*picce*), *thill* (*pile*, *pill*), *thane* (*pēgen*, *pēn*), Old-English and Old-Scotch *than*, *tharm* (*pear*), *threshold* (*prēscwald*, *pārscoold* &c.), Old-English *threswold*, Old-Scotch *threswald*, *throw* (*prāvan*); the verb *thwite* and substantive *thwittle* are obsolete (*pvitan* = *abscidere*) [*whittle* is the Anglosaxon *hvitte* = *cultellus*]; *withy* (*viðig* = *salix*) also *withe* (Old-norse *vidia* = *vimen salicis* and *vidir* = *salix*); *with* (*við*, also *vid*), *mouth* (*mûð*), *month* (*mônâð*, *mônð*), *mirth* (*merbð*, *mirð*); — of *th*: *Thomas*, *thummim* (Hebrew), *catholic*, *cathedral* (*ecclesia cathedralis*), *mathematics* &c. Goth (Latin *Gothus*, Anglosaxon *Gota*), *Behemoth* (Hebrew).

The Anglosaxon *t* becomes *th*, whereas Old-English often retains *t*: *Thanet* (*Tenet*, Latin *Tanetos ins.*), *Thames*, where the pro-

nunciation preserves *t* (Temese, Tānese). Old-English Temese, fifth (fifta), eleventh (ēndlyfta), twelfth (tvelfta) and other ordinal numbers, assimilated to those in *ōfta*; even in Old-English fyfthe, sixthe (fifta, sexta) &c; but also syxte and even eghte (eahtōða); swarþ, swarþy = black, tawny (sveart), yet also swart: lath (latta).

In words, derived from the ancient tongues, *th* often stands for *t*: Anthony (Antonius), author (autor), prothonotary (protonotarius); we also find lanthorn alongside of lantern (lanterne, Latin *laterna*, *lanterna*). The Old-English frequently apprehended *t* thus: rethor (rhetor), Sathanas (Satanas), Piholomee and others. The Modern-English anthem, Old-English antem, Anglosaxon antefen, has arisen out of antiphona.

The Anglosaxon *d* has been changed into *th* partly in the middle of a word between vowels, partly at the end, which only slowly became the general usage in Old-English: hither (hider), Old-English hider; thither (pider), Old-English thider; wither (hivāder, hvider), Old-English whider; together (tō gādere), Old-English togeder, togyder; weather (vēder), Old-English weder; father (fāder), Old-English fader; mother (modor), Old-English moder; hyder, togyder even in Skelton. — both, Old-English bathe, bath. Old-Scotch baith finds no support in the Anglosaxon *begen*, *bā*, *bā*, but perhaps in the Old-norse *bádir*, *bádar*, *bædi*, compare Danish *baade*, Swedish *både*, Gothic *bajōps*; as booth in the Old-norse *būð*; froth (Old-norse *froða* = *spuma*), birth, birthday (byrd, byrddæg, but compare also *beorð* = *nativitas*); stalworth, Old-English stalward, stalwart and stalworth, Old-Scotch stalwart = stout, valiant, comes from the Anglosaxon *stealveard* Substantive = adjutorium; in Chaucer we also find *elth* for the likewise obsolete *eld* (*ylde*, *eld*) = *senectus*. Even in words not Anglosaxon the *th* instead of *d* sometimes enters: brothel goes back primarily to the Old-French *bordel*. Medieval-Latin *bordellum* (Anglosaxon *bord*), compare the Old-English *athamant* (*adamas*); faith (*feid*, *feit*, *fois*, *feiz*), Old-English *fay*, *feye*, striking *feight* in Halliwell s. v., but compare *spright* and the Old-English *spight* instead of *spite* even in the seventeenth century, and the like. The Cymric *d*, or what was so apprehended by the Roman ear, appears as *th* in Caermarthen (Latin *Maridunum*, Cymric *caer vyrdin*), as well as in Neath (Latin *Nidum*).

A French *z* was sometimes rendered in Old-English by *th*, as in *asseth* (*assez*); may faith have descended from *feiz* with the *z* of the nominative?

S apart from its division into a hard and a soft sound, mostly supposes an Anglosaxon and a Romance *s*: six (six), sell (sellan, syllan), say (secgan, seggan), soon (sona, suna), smoke (smocjan), snow (snāw), slink (slincan), spill (spillan), swear (sverjan), stink (stin-can), spread (sprædan), strawberry (stravberje); — master (mā-gester), cleanse (clænsjan), whisper (hvisprjan), arise (ārisan), grass (grās, gārs); grasp, (Lowdutch grapsen); wrist (vríst); — signify (signifier), sever (sevrer), summons (semonse), surgeon (surgien), spice (espisce), spouse (espos, espous m., spouse fem.), stanch (estancher), restrain (restraindre), science (science),

cloister (cloistre), joious (joios, -ous, -us), host (hoste, oste). Upon the combinations of *s* with gutturals *sc*, *sk*, *sq*, *sch* see below.

s often stands in place of a dental Romance and Latin *c*, with which it still often interchanges in Old-English; as, conversely, *c* even in Modern-English sometimes even takes the place of an Anglosaxon *s* (see below *c*); moreover that *c* commonly interchanges with *s* in Old-French, which has mostly solely survived in Modern-French, as sometimes with *ch*: searsh (cercher, chercheur), succory (Latin cichorium, French chicorée); mason (maçon, maçon, Medieval-Latin macio, mattio, machio), ransom (raançon, raiaison, raenchon), lesson (leçon), caparison (caparaçon), purslain (porcelaine), nurse, Old-English nourice, norice, even in Shakspeare nourish, license (licence), [dispire perhaps from despise, despis, not immediately from despiciere], cimiss, (compare French cimicides, Latin cimex, -icis) and many more. In Old-English forms like seint, a girdle, sese (cease), cesoun (saison), servisable, sacrificise &c. frequently occur. The feminine form of substantives in *esse*, Modern-French *ice* alongside of (*er*) *esne*, has moreover already sometimes an *s*, for the first form still sometimes current in French: empress, Old-French empereris, empereis, but in Old-English also emperice.

In sash *s* seems to have proceeded from a French *ch* instead of the primitive guttural *c* (châsse, châssis from the Latin capsā); Dissimilation of the initial and the final sound will have been the cause.

s arises from the Anglosaxon *ð* in the verbal ending of the third person singular of the present, where in the poetic, solemn and archaic speech the termination *eth* stands by its side. In the Northern dialects *s* early took the place of *th*, not only in the termination of the singular, but also of the plural, which was likewise *eth*. The Old-Scotch seldom has *th*; here commonly *hes* (has), *standis*, *makis*, *knawis*, *stertis*, *gettis*, *differis* &c. stand for singular and plural. In the thirteenth and the fourteenth century *s* is found in the southern dialects alongside of *th*; Chaucer (in the Reeves tale) attributes to those of Cambridge the forms *has*, *bringes*, *fares*, *findes* &c. whereas *th* else prevails in him. Since the sixteenth century this *s* has made greater progress in English; in Skelton, Spenser, Shakspeare and others *s* and *th* are interchanged, in which *th* is gradually reserved for solemn speech (see Mommsen Romeo and Juliet p. 107). The grammar of the seventeenth century put the usage of *th* foremost, and that of *s* in the second rank; modern usage makes *s* the rule, *th* the exception.

In the word ease and its derivatives easy &c. Old-English, Old-Scotch and dialectical *eth*, *eath*, *eathly* &c., even along with *eis* and the like, the Anglosaxon *eað*, *eaðelic* and the Old-French *aise*, substantive *aaise*, of like descent (Gothic *azets*) meet and mix; in bequest from bequeath (becvēðan) we must go back to the Anglosaxon substantive form *cviiss*, compare behest (Anglosaxon *behæss*).

sc, *sk* and *sq*, in which *s* combines with a guttural, are in the more general transition of the Anglosaxon *sc* into the sibilant *sh* more rarely in Germanic than in Romance words, or in words which have passed through Old-French and Latin Greek words. *sc* is found only before obscure vowels (with which of course there is no

question of the dental *c*, as in *scene*, *science*), as well as before another consonant, rarely at the end of a word; *sq* only before a semivowel *u*, unless in immediately received foreign words.

sc arises from the Anglosaxon *sc* (Old-norse *sk*): *scale* (*scalu* = *lanx*), *scab* (*scebb*, *scäbb* = *scabies*), *scald* (Old-norse *skáldr*), *scatter* (*scateran* = *dissipare*), *scoff* (compare the Old-norse *skuffa* = *irridere*), *scour* (Lowdutch *schüren*), *score* (*scor* = *incisura*), *scurf* (*scurf* = *scabies*), *screech* (Old-norse *skrækja* and *skríkja*) alongside of *shriek*, *scrape* (*scrëpan*, *screopan*, Lowdutch *schräpen*); frequently from the Old-French *sc*, also *sch*, also themselves of Germanic descent: *scaffold* (*escafaut*, *eschafaut*), *scan* (*escander* = *scandere*), *scarce* (*escars*, *eschars*), *scarlet* (*escarlote*), *scorn* (*escorner*, compare Modern-French *écorner*), *scorch* (*escorchier*, *escorcer*), *scutcheon*, *escutcheon* (*escusson*), *scatches* (*eschace* = *béquille*, Modern-French *échasses*), *scourge* (*escourgée*), *scape* and *escape* (*escaper*, *eschaper*), *scandal* (*scandele*, *escandele*), *scamper* (*escamper*), *escritoire* and others, *fisc* (*fiscus*).

Sometimes Germanic and Romance forms mix; for instance *scot*, *escot* stands alongside of *shot*, Old-French *escot*, Anglosaxon *scot*; *scant*, *scantlet*, *scantling* and the verb *scantle* point immediately to the Old-French *eschantelet*, Modern-French *échantillon*, compare Medieval-Latin *scantellatus* = *truncatus*, but belong to the Anglosaxon *scēnan*, *scēnan* = *frangere*; *scarf* corresponds in meaning to the Old-French *escharpe*, *escerpe*, Anglosaxon *sceorp* = *vestitus*, but as to its form attaches itself to the Anglosaxon *scearfe* = *fragmen*.

sk stands for the Anglosaxon *sk* (Old-norse *sk*): *skin* (*scinn*), *skill* (*sciljan* = *distinguere*, Old-norse *skilja* = *discernere*, *intelligere*), *sky* (Old-norse *ský* = *nubes*), *skipper* (*scipere* = *nauta*), *skirt* (Anglosaxon *scyrta* = *abbreviare*, compare the Old-norse *skirta*, *skyrta* = *subligar*, *indusium*, English *shirt*), *skull* (Old-Highdutch *sciulla*); *brisket* (Old-norse *briosk* = *cartilago*), *tusk* (*tusc*, *tux*), *flask* (*flasc*, *flasca*, *flaxa*); and for the Old-French *sc* (*sk*) and *sq*: *skirmish* rests immediately on the Old-French *eskremir*, *eskermir*, whereas the cognate *scrimmer* points to the Anglosaxon *scrimbre*; *sketch* (*esquisse*, Italian *schizzo*); *musket*, *musketoon* (*moschete*, *mouskete*), Medieval-Latin *muschetta*, *mask* (*masque*, Medieval-Latin *masca*, *mascus*), *cask* = hollow vessel rests, like *casque* = helmet, on the French *casque*, *risk* (*risque*). In *lask* and *task* *sk* rests on a primitive *x*: *lask* (Latin *laxus*) *diarrhoea*; *task* (Latin *taxa*, Modern-French *tâche*, French *tasque*).

Moreover *sc* and *sk* are often confounded, for instance, in *scate* and *skate*, (Hollandish *schaats*), *sceptic* and *skeptic* and others.

sq (*u*), in words originally Germanic, occurs only through the placing of an *s* before *cv*, as in *squeak* (Lowdutch *quiken*, *quēken*); On the other hand, in words originally Latin and Old-French, has frequently arisen from *sc* and *sq* before *u*: *squire*, *esquire* (Old-French *escuier*, *esquier* = *scutarius*), Old-English *squiere*; *squirrel* (*escurel*, *escurill* from the Latin *sciurus*), *squad* (*escouade*, Italian *squadra*), *squalid* (Latin *squalidus*) and others.

sch with the guttural *ch* is met with in words originally oriental and Greek: *scheme* (*σχῆμα*), *pasch* (*pascha*), also in *school* (*schola*,

αχολ.), although this sounded scôlu in Anglosaxon and hence in Old-English scole; scholar. Upon exceptions see pronunciation page 62. Likewise the Italian words, in scherzando &c.

Z was little known in Anglosaxon, and has come into English from the ancient and the Romance tongues; in Anglosaxon it stands rarely instead of *ð*, like as the Old-French occasionally symbolized an English *p*, *ð* by *z*: zorne (Anglosaxon porne) est espine Rom. DE ROU). It arose out of the ancient and Romance *z* (*z*): zeal (French zèle, Greek ζήλο.), whence zealot, zealous (French jaloux); zest (French zeste), zone (French, the same, ζώνη), zocle alongside of socle (Italian zoccolo, French socle), azure (French azur), to say naught of other foreign words, such as quartz and the like.

Yet it has also taken the place of an Anglosaxon, instead of an Old-French *s*, where it still frequently interchanges with *s*, whereas Old-English commonly presents this alone: hazel (hâsel), Old-norse hasl; freeze (freósan), breeze and breese = tabanus (bríosa), sneeze and neese (compare fneósan), glaze, glazen (substantive glas, adjective glâsen); blaze (blâse), maze and amaze (mâse = gurges), agaze = to strike with amazement (gæsan = percellere); adz, adze along with addice (adese), ouzel along with ousel (ôsele), gloze and glose along with gloss (substantive glôse, verb glêsan = interpretari, adulari); naze along with ness = headland (nâss, nâsse), daze, dazzle, dizzy (from dysig = stultus, Old-English, from dase), drizzle (from dreósan = cadere); — seize (saisir, seisir), seizin and seisin (saisine, seiseine), raze and rase along with erase (raser), razor (rasor, rasoir), cizar along with scissors (ciseaux), buzzard (buzart, Old-Highdutch búsar, Latin buteo); frizz, frizzle along with frissle, French friser, belongs to the Anglosaxon frise = crispus. Fitz is the Old-French fils, fix, fiz &c.

Sh, a sibilant, which Old-English oftentimes represented by *sch*, *ssh*, perhaps also by *ss* (compare ssame = shame &c. in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), is in Germanic words mostly the substitute for the Anglosaxon *sc* (Old-norse *sk*), although *c* has often continued a guttural (see above): shift (substantive scift, verb sciftan), sheet (scête, scýte = linteum), shed (scæddan), shake (scacan), shoulder (sculdor), shoe (scôh), shrink (scrincan), shrive, shrift (scrifan, scrift); bishop (biscop), fish (fisc, fix), flesh (flæsc), thrash (præscan), dash (Old-norse daska = percutere), marsh (mersc). Forms in *sc* often serve to distinguish nearly related Anglosaxon words, as: score, Anglosaxon scor, a notch &c., shore, Anglosaxon score, a coast; this dissimilation also gives notional distinctions, as: scatter to strew &c. and shatter, to break to pieces, Anglosaxon scateran; alongside of scab (scebb) stands shabby, mostly used figuratively; disc the apparently tabular surface of a heavenly body, and dish, a flattened culinary utensil, point to the same Anglosaxon disc, dix = tabula, Latin discus.

As the Anglosaxon *sc* interchanges with *x*, this is also treated as an *sc* in rush (ryxa, but Latin ruscus). Of another kind is the transformation of Xeres into the English sherry.

sh seldom answers to a single Anglosaxon *s*, as in blush (blýsjan), and abash, Old-Engl. abase, and bash, bashful, belonging, according

to Dieffenbach to the Middle-Netherlandish *basen*, Modern-Netherlandish *verbazen*. With this we may compare the apprehension of the *s* in Shepton Mallet (Latin *Septonia*), likewise that of the Latin *s* (from the Hebrew *ש*) in Joshua (*Josua*).

On the other hand the Old-French *ss*, which also was wont to interchange with the dental *c* and *ch*, is frequently rendered by *sh*, whether that *ss*, *c*, *ch* rests upon a primitive *x* or the combination of other sounds, or even upon a single dental: *cuish* (*cuisse*, *quisse*, Latin *coxa*), *cash* (*casse*, *chasse*, Modern-French *caisse*, Latin *capsa*, Medieval-Latin *cacia*, *cacea*), *sash* (*châsse*, the same word as the last), *brush* (*broce*, *broche*, *brosse*, Old-Highdutch *brusta*), *anguish* (*anguisse*, *angoisse*, Latin *angustia*), Old-English *anguysse*; *calabash* (*calebasse*, Spanish *calabaza*), *plash*, to twine boughs, (*plaisier*, *plassier*, from the Latin *plexus*), *leash* (*laisse*, *lesse*), *push* (*pousser*, Latin *pulsare*), Old-English *possen*; *parish* (*paroche*, *paroisse* = *parochia*), *cushion* (*coussin*, Medieval-Latin *cussinus*, from the Latin *culcita*), *fashion* (*fachon*, *fazon*, *faceon*); to which also belongs the verbal ending *ish*, French *iss*, Latin *isc*, as in *embellish* (*embellise*, as it were the Latin *embelliscere*), which the Old-English used to give by *ise*, *ice*, as the Old-Scotch did by *is*, *eis*, together with *ische*. In Modern-English the dental *c* has continued in *rejoice*, Old-English *rejoisse* (= *rejo-iss-*, from the Old-French *joïr*, *goïr*).

The representation of the dental *ch* by *sh* in English is natural, where in French the former alone appears, having been mostly softened from the guttural *c*, *k*, although it may also have arisen from a sibilant: *dishevel* (compare *escheveler* from *chevel*, Latin *capillus*), *gamashes* (*gamache*, Medieval-Latin *gamacha*, a bootleg); *hash*, which appears alongside of *hack*, rests upon *hacher*, as the former does immediately upon the Anglo-saxon *haccjan* = *concidere*; the dialectical *fash* answers to the French *fâcher* (from the Latin *fastidium*); the cloth named *shalloon* comes from *Châlons*; the French *chaloupe* after the Hollandish *sloop*, the Englishman renders by *shallop* along with *sloop*. Even *sch* in forms sometimes gives *sh*: *shawl* (Persian *schâl*).

Through the agreement of the French *ch* with the English *sh*, the English spelling sometimes fluctuates between both, for instance in *shagreen* and *chagrin* (French *chagrin*, from the Arabic *zargab*, Turkish *sagri*), *fetish* and *fetich* (Portugese *fetisso*, French of the eighteenth century *fétiche*), *cabashed* and *caboched* (*caboiché*, compare *caboche*, thickhead, from the Latin *caput*); the fish is called *shad* and *chad* (*ch* pronounced like *sh*). Is it related to the Anglo-saxon *sceadda*, English *scate*, *skate*? In Old-English even *chiver* is found instead of *shiver* (compare the Old-Highdutch *scivero*, Middle-Highdutch *schivere*); and thus the Modern-English *eddish* (Anglo-saxon *edisc*) also becomes *etch*.

Even *ss* sometimes still stands in Modern-English alongside of *sh*, as in Old-English (see above), in *bassa* and *bashaw*, Persian *pai*, *schah* (foot of the shach).

The word *radish*, answering in meaning, to the Anglo-saxon *rādic*, in fact also *radik* in Old-English (see HALLIWELL s. v.) is

attached to the French *radix* or the Latin *radix*, as well as to the Swedish *rädisa*.

The sibilant is still sometimes represented in Modern-English by *sch* instead of by *sh*, and that according to Old-French precedent: *eschew* (*eschiver*, Old-Highdutch *skiuhan*), *escheat* (*eschet* from *escheoir*), *eschalot*, also *shalot* (*échalotte*, Italian *scalogno* = *allium ascalonicum*. LINNÉ).

J, as a consonant sibilant, proceeds from the Old-French *j* and dental *g*, which not rarely interchanged with *j*; the Latin *j*, although it has not always passed through the Romance, is referred hither: *jig* (*gigue*, *gige*, Middle-Highdutch *gîge*) together with the dissimilated *gig* with an initial guttural *g* (compare the Old-norse *geiga* = *tremere*), *jew* (*juif*), *jail* together with *gaol* (*gaiole*, *jaiole*, *gaole*, Medieval-Latin *gabiola*, *gayola*, from *caveola*), *joy* (*goie*, *joie*), *jaunte*, *felly* (*jante*), *jangle* (*jangler*, *gangler*, Hollandish *janken*, *jangelen*), *jay* (*gai*, Modern-French *geai*), *jargon* (*jargon*, *gargon*), to which perhaps *jargle* (compare *jargoner* and the Old-norse substantive *jarg* and *jargan* = *taediosa iteratio* and *sermo inconditus*), *juggle* (*jogler*, *jugler*, Latin *joculari*), *just*, *joust*, *justle*, *jostle* (substantive *joste*, *jouste*, *juste*, verb *joster*, *jouster*, *juster*, from the Latin *juxta*). *Jest* comes from the Old-French *geste*, compare *chanson de geste*, Old-English *gestour*, *jestour* (for to tellen tales [CHAUCER 13775]); *jaw* refers us to the Old-French *joe*, provençal *gauta*, although formerly of the same import as *chaw* (Old-Highdutch *chouwe*) although *job* also seems to interchange with *chop*.

In *jashawk* the word *eyas-hawk* is transmuted, thus *y* has passed into a dental.

As in Old-French, so in Modern-English the dentals *g* and *j* sometimes stand in double forms for each other, as: *jennet*, *genet* and *ginnet* (*genet*, Latin *genista* = broom), *Jill* and *Gill* (*Gille* = *Aegidia*), *jingle* and *gingle* (perhaps belonging to *jangler*, *gangler*?), *jenneting*, *geniting* (from *June*) as it were *Juneapple*; *jail* and *gaol* (see above) and others.

Upon the Modern-English pronunciation of *j* see below *ch* 2.

4) The Throat-sounds **k** (*ck*), **q**, **c**, **ch**, **g**, (*gu*, *gh*), **h**, **y**, **x**.

K which, along with *c*, answers to the hard guttural sound of the Greek as well as of the Gothic *k*, stands at the beginning of a word especially before clear vowels, as well as before *n* in the middle of a word before or after another consonant or doubled (as *ck*) and at the end of English words singly, doubled or after another consonant. Upon *sk* see above.

The representation of the Anglosaxon guttural *c*, which down to the eleventh century before all vowels, as well as before consonants, denoted the same sound, and not till afterwards, especially in foreign words, was also written *k*, has in English been distributed among *k* and *c* (before obscure vowels and in the compounds *cl*, *cr*) and *qu*, mostly instead of the Anglosaxon *cu*; whereas the Anglosaxon *c* before *i*, *y*, *e*, *ē*, *ea*, *eo*, for which in Anglosaxon *ch* gradually came in, became the English dental *ch*. The pure guttural, was preserved however before clear vowels as an initial *k*, chiefly in those words, in

which the vowels appeared to be modifications of obscure vowels, or where *ki*, *ke* rest upon the Anglosaxon *cri*, *cve*.

k for the Anglosaxon initial *c*: kin, kindred (cynn. Gothic *kuni*, and Anglosaxon *cynd*), kind (cynde = congruus), king (cýning, Old-Highdutch *kunung*), kine (Nominative plural *cý*, Genitive *cûna*), kindle (Old-norse *kinda* = ignem alere), kill, alongside of quell (cveljan and cvellan), Old-English also kull, kiln (cylene), kirtle (cyrtel), kite (cita, cyta = milvus), kitchen (cycene, Old-Highdutch *kuchina*), kid (Old-norse *kid*, *hoedus*), kiss (cyssan, substantive *coss*), key (cæge), keen (cêne, Old-Highdutch *kuon*, *kôni*), keel (ceól or ceol, Old-Highdutch *kiel*), keep alongside of cheapen = to bargain, Old-English *chepen* = to buy (cêpan, cýpan = vendere; tenere), Kent (Cent-land along with Cantvare), Keunet (Cynet) in Wiltshire, kernel (cyrnel), kettle (cetil, cytel, Gothic *katils*); formerly also kittle along with tickle (citeljan, tinclan, *tolcettan* = titillare). Old-English, like the Scotch, has forms like *kirk* (cyrice), now church, *kemben* (cemban, substantive *camb*, *comb*) now comb, *kennen* = to teach (cunnan, Present *cann* = scire, Gothic *kannjan* = *γυναικείν*), *kerse* (cerse, crêsse, Danish *karse*). Old-English also often puts *k* instead of *c* before obscure vowels, as *kan* (can), *kacchen* (catch), *kutten* (cut), and with *r* at the beginning of a word, as *krake* (to crack), *krete* (crest), *krewelle* (cruel), with *l*, as *klevys* (cliffs) and others. In the combination *kn*, where *k* is silent, although in Old-English it still sounded as a guttural (see above page 70), it has stood since the remotest time, as in *knight* (cniht, cneohht), *knife* (cnif), *knell* (cnyll, Middle-Highdutch *knillen*, Modern-Highdutch *knallen*), *know* (cnâvan) &c.

In the middle and at the end of a word **k** is frequent as the representative of the Anglosaxon *c*, after a short vowel and in the middle of a word, doubled as *ck*, although at the end of a word it not seldom gives place to the dental *ch*, especially where it originally stood before clear vowels: *twinkle* (tvincljan), *wrinkle* (vrinle), *fickle* (ficol), *knuckle* (cnucl); — *sink* (sincan), *think* (pencēan, *pencan*), *rank* (ranc = foecundus), *folk* (folc), *hulk* (hulce), *ark* (arc, earc = navis), *dark* (dearc, deorc), *clerk* (cleric, clerc), *tusk* (tusc); — like (*líc*), *rake* (race), *sake* (sacu, sâc), *snake* (snaca); — greek (*grêc*, *græc*), *speak* (sprēcan, spēcan), *hawk* (hafuc), *bullock* (bulluca), *hook* (hóc); — *thick* (picce), *neck* (hnecca), *knock* (cnocjan), *lock* (loce), *suck* (sūcan, sūgan). Upon the dental initial and final *ch*, and its partial interchange with *k*, see under *ch*.

In words originally Romance an initial English *k* is found before clear vowels, with a regard to the originally obscure vowel, sometimes, where Old-French presents *c* and *k* along with *ch*: *kerchief* (couvrechief), *kennel* (chenil, Latin *canile*, compare *chien*, *kien*). At the beginning of a word it sometimes replaces, before vowels, but especially at the end of a word, a guttural *c* or *k* and *qu*: *remarkable* (remarquer, Old-French *marker*), *turkois* and *turquoise* (turquoise), *locket* (loquet, from the Anglosaxon *loc* = repagulum), *wicket* (wiket, *guischet*, from the Anglosaxon *víc*), *cricket* (criquet), *lackey* (laquais, formerly also *laquet*); — *flanc* (flanc), *plank* (planche, planke, Latin *planca*), *de-*, *embark* (pri-

marily French *dé-*, *embarquer*, yet also English *bark*, *barge*, Old-norse *barki*, *barkr*), *cask* (*casque*); — *creak* and *creek* (*criquer*, compare Anglosaxon *cearcjan* = *stridere*), *creek* and *crick*, a *bight* (*crique*), *con-*, *revoke* (*con-*, *revoquer*), *duke* (*duc*); — *relick*, Old-English *relike* (*relique*), *trick* (*tricher*, *trichier*), compare substantive *trekerie*, *trequerie*, (see MÄTZNER, *Altfranzösische Lieder* s. v.), *attack* (*attaquer*), *truck* (*troquer*), *mock* (*moquer*, Cymric *mociaw*).

It must be understood that various foreign words in *k* have been admitted in which it has remained even before obscure vowels and *r*, although else it passes over into *c*: *kaleidoscope*, *kali*, *kan-garoo*, *kufic*, *kumiss*, *kraal*, *kraken* &c. But in many words *k* interchanges with *c* before obscure vowels, as in *calendar* and *kalendar*, *caliph* and *kaliph*, *alcali* and *alkali*, *alcahest* and *alkahest*, and so at the end of a word: *almanac* and *almanack* &c. In Germanic words this is rare, as in *caw* and *kaw* (compare the Old-Scotch *kae* = *jackdaw*, Anglosaxon *ceo?*), *ankle* and *anle* (*anleov*).

k stands sometimes as the substitute for other gutturals, as for *h* in *elk* (Anglosaxon *eolh*), and in Cymric words, for *ch* in *Brecknock* (Cymric *Brecheniauc* = *regio Brachani*), wherewith we may compare the name of the Highdutch wine *backrag* (from *Bacharach*); *g* has become *k* in *basket* (Cymric *basged*, *basgawd*, even by the Romans apprehended as *bascauda*); *rank*, answers to the Cymric *rheng*, *rhenge*, yet both tongues perhaps refer to the Old-French *renc*, itself answering to the Anglosaxon *hring*, *hrinc*.

An interchange of *g* and *k* takes place moreover in Germanic words, thus *knar*, *knarl* stands alongside of *gnar* and *gnarl* (compare the Anglosaxon *gnyrran* = *stridere*, *gnornjan* = *moerere*), as well as the Lowdutch *knarren* and *gnarren*, *gnaddern*; thus too *knaw* is cited along with *gnaw* (Anglosaxon *nagan* and *gnagan*, Old-Saxon *cnagan*). Compare below *c* 1 and *g* 1.

Q (*qu*), which the English and Scotch borrowed from the Latin alphabet, arises out of the Anglosaxon *cv*, so far as *k* has not here come in before clear vowels (as the Anglosaxon *cy* developed itself out of *cvi* and conversely, for instance, *cve*, *cveo*, *cvi* &c. answered to the Gothic *qi*: *quiver* (compare Anglosaxon *cviferlice* = *anxiously*) = to shiver, shudder, quick (*cvic*), queen (*cvên*), *quean* = *strumpet* (*cvêne* = *meretrix*, *mulier*), Old-English also *qweyn*, *bequeath* (*becvêðan*), *quench* (*cvencan* = *extinguere*), *quake* (*cvacjan*). Thus also arise double forms, like *quell* (*cveljan*, *cvellan*), in Old-English equal to *kill*; *quern* (*cveorn*, *cvyrn*) and the obsolete *kern* = *mola*.

Other Germanic words in *qu* point to corresponding ones in High- and Lowdutch, as *quack* (Highdutch *quaken*), *squeak* (*quieken*) and many more.

The compound *awkward* is spelt by Skelton *aquarde* (I. p. 331.), North-English *awkert* (Old-Highdutch *abuh*, Gothic *ibuks*).

A series of Romance and, originally, chiefly Latin words has *qu*, corresponding to the *qu* appearing in Latin or only in Old-French, as to which it is to be remarked, that this also interchanged with *cu* in French: *quit* (*quiter*, *cuitier*), *quiet* (Latin *quietus*, Old-French *quoit*, *coit*, *coi*), *vanquish* (perhaps with reference to *venquis*,

Modern-French vainquis, compare Old-French vainquieres), quail (quaille, Medieval-Latin quaquila, Modern-French caille); quarry = square (quarre, qarre), and quarry (Modern-French carriere), quash = to crush (quasser, casser = quassare), on the other hand = to annul (quasser, casser = cassum reddere, cassare), quarrel, Old-English querele (querele), conquest (conquest, conquete), square (compare Modern-French équerre, a mason's square), pique (pique, verb piquer) and so forth. Many have been borrowed immediately from the Latin, as quadrate, quodlibet &c.

cu and *co* lie originally at the root of other verbal forms received from the French, for which the Romance language, along with *cu*, *co*, often gave *qu*, especially with an *i* after it; as *cu*, *co* is also in Latin developed into *qui*; compare *incola* and *inquilinus*, *stercus* and *sterquilinium*: quiver (*cuivre*, *cuevre*, *couire*, compare the Anglosaxon *cocar*); esquire, squire, Old-English *squier*, *squiere* (*escuier*, *esquier* = *scutarius*), squirrel (*escurel*, *esquirel* = *sciurulus*), quaint (*cointe* = Latin *comptus*, *comtus*), compare the Old-English *coynteliche*, *coyn-tise*, *queintise*; acquainted (*acointer* = Medieval-Latin *adcognitare*), quire alongside of choir, Old-English *queer* (MAUNDEV.) (*choeur*), quof alongside of coif (*coife*, *quoife*, Medieval-Latin *cofea*, *cuphia*). The Old-English had *quishin*, *qwyssyn* instead of cushion (*cousin*, Medieval-Latin *cussinus*), *surquidrie*, *surquedrie* (compare sorcuidance from *cuidcr*, Latin *cogitare*) and many more.

The Anglosaxon *cu* also became *qui* in quid, chewed tobacco, alongside of cud, the chewed food in the first stomach of reemnants (Anglosaxon *cud* from *ceóvan*, English *chew*), the former whereof is dialectically still used for *cud*.

c is occasionally found alongside of *qu* before an obscure vowel: liquorice and licorice (Latin *liquiritia*), as in the Old-English *licour*, Modern-English *liquor*; before a clear vowel sometimes *k* alongside of *qu*: *fakir* and *faquir*, with the pronunciation of *k*.

C is partly guttural, partly dental, the former in Anglosaxon and Romance, of course also in Latin; the latter chiefly in Romance and Latin words.

- 1) The guttural *c* rests upon an Anglosaxon *c* before obscure vowels, as well as in the compounds *cl* and *cr*, being in words of this descent chiefly limited to the beginning, in as much as *k*, *q* and the dental *ch* have taken its place. It also naturally answers to the Old-norse *k*: can (*canne* = *crater*), call (*cealljan*, Old-norse *kalla*), cast (Old-norse *kasta* = *jacere*), colt (*colt*), cup (*cupp*), curse (substantive *curs*, verb *cursjan*); = cliff (*clif*), clip (*clyppan* = *amplecti*), cluster (*clyster*, *cluster* = *racemus*), clew (*clive* = *glomus*), cluck (*cloccjan* = *glocire*); — crib (*cribb*), cringle (Old-norse *kringla* = *orbis*), crave (*crafjan*), crop &c., (substantive *cropp* in the same meaning, Old-norse verb *kroppa* = *carpere*); scrape (*screpan*, Lowdutch *schrappen*), scrap = fragment, crum (Old-norse *skrap* = *nugae*).

The Romance and Latin guttural *c* is found rendered at the beginning and in the middle of a word (here also reduplicated as *cc*, whereas the reduplication is elsewhere denoted by *ck*) and at the end of a word by *c*: cabbage (French *cabus*, Old-High-

dutch capuz, Medieval-Latin gabusia, from the Latin caput), cadet (French the same, like capitellum for capitellum), cause (cause), coach (coche, Italian cocchio), coffer (cofe, cofre, Medieval-Latin cofrus, from cophinus), whence also the English coffin, coil (coillir, cueillir), count (conter, cunter = computare), to reckon; cumber, encumber (combrer, encombrer, encumbrer); — claim (clamer, claimer), cloy to nail up, to **cram** (cloer?), cribble (crible), cream (cresme, Medieval-Latin crema), crest (creste, Latin crista), cry (crier); in the **Middle of a word** and doubled: bacon (bacon from the Anglosaxon bāc), circumstance, circuit, viscous (visqueux), section, action, circle, secle (secle, siecle), accord, succor (succurre, soucoure), bacca, accuse, succulent &c.; **at the end of a word** with other consonants and alone, especially in the termination ic (Latin icus, ica, icum); sect (secte), act, perfect; — music, republic, politic, catholic, critic, bac (bac, Hollandish bak), maniac, where formerly *ck* was the favourite spelling, or *ique* came in; similarly relic alongside of relique (French relique) and the like.

c frequently stands in Romance words, where Modern-French presents a dental *ch*. Here regard must be had not so much to the primitive Latin *c* as to the dialectal and older French *c* and *ch*: caitiff (caitif, chaitif, Modern-French chétif), carnal (carnel, charnel), on the other hand charnelhouse (Old-French charnel), carrion (caroigne, carongne, charoigne, Modern-French charogne), Old-English caroyne, careyne, caraine; carry (carier, charier), carpenter (carpentier, charpentier), castle (castel, chastel), caudle (caudel, chaudel, Modern-French chaudreau), caldron (Modern-French chaudron, Italian calderone), causey deformed into causeway (cauchie, chaussee, chalkway) and others, although in most cases the English has chosen the dental *ch*, as in challenge (calengier, chalenger, chalongier, from calumniare), champion (campion, champion) &c. (see under *ch*), or has passed over into *sh* (see *sh*).

Occasionally, even in English, the guttural *c* interchanges with the dental *ch*: calice (TAYLOR) and chalice (calice, compare the Anglosaxon calic) and some others.

For other gutturals *c* seldom appears; it answers to the Anglosaxon *g* in Wicliffe (Vigláf, Old-Saxon Wiglêf), to the Celtic *g* in claymore (glaymôr), to the Latin *g* in the Old-English vacabonde instead of vagabond (still in use in the sixteenth century), and Reculver (Latin Regulbium), as conversely gamboge (from Cambogia) is interchanged with camboge. The name of a nation, Picts, sounds in Anglosaxon Pihtas, Peohtas, as the Anglosaxon *h* often answers to the Latin *c*, for instance in Viht, English Wight, Latin Vectis. Compare *k*.

- 2) the dental *c*, equivalent in sound to the sharp *s*, therefore frequently interchanging with it, is most frequently met with in Romance and Latin, but also in originally Anglosaxon words, representing in the former the dental *c*- and *s*-sound, in the latter

only the *s*-sound before clear vowels. Its phonetic transmutation into the hissing sound has been spoken of before (see p. 62).

At the beginning and in the middle, as well as at the end of a word before a mute *e*, it is very usual instead of the Romance and Latin *c* before a clear vowel: cinder (cendre, Latin ciner-em), cierge (cierge from cire), city (citeir, cite), cider (cidre, deformed from the Latin sicera), cedar (cedre, Latin cedrus); — council (concile, Latin concilium), solicitude: — entice (enticer, enticher = exciter), spice (espece, espisce), edifice, face, trace (tracer, trasser, tracher), distance &c.

In Cedron the Latin Cedron (Greek *Κεδρών*) lies at the root.

The Modern-English *c* is frequently employed, particularly at the end of a word, in the place of the Old-French *s*, *ss*, for which the Old-French often puts *c* (since it frequently proceeded from *c*) and alongside of which it sometimes has a final *z* and *x*, the latter of which has often remained in Modern-French. Old-English still often has *c*, even at the beginning of a word, which has become almost foreign to Modern-English. Compare the Old-English cesoun (saison, seson), Modern-English season (MAUNDEV.), ceise, cese (saisir, seisir), Modern-English seize (CHAUCER), Cecylle, Modern-English Sicily (TOWNEL. MYST.) and others. In Modern-English centinel is still here and there found for sentinel, cerf alongside of serf and others (see under *sc*); in the middle of a word: fancy (fantasie), faucet, a tap (fausset), enhance (from hausser, yet in Old-French commonly enhaucier); at the end of a word, where Old-English most frequently preserves *s*: device (substantive devis, devise), advice (avis), offence (offense), defence (defense), trance (transe from transir), dance (danser, dancer, Old-Highdutch dansôn), scarce (eschars, escars), pace (pas, pais), cowardice (coardise), furnace (fournaise), palace (palais, paleis, pales); embrace (embrasser, embracer), pinnacle (pinasse from pinus); peace (pais, paiz, paix), price (preis, preix, pris), voice (vois, voiz, voix), choice (chois, cois), deuce (doi, dois, doux, Modern-French deux), ace (as); in Old-English we find the forms crevis instead of crevice (Modern-French crevasse), dis instead of dice (Modern-French dés), surplis instead of surplice, forneis instead of furnace, pees instead of peace, chois instead of choice, vois instead of voice, like enhaunsen instead of enhance, pass instead of pace and others. Dissimilation comes in in Modern-English, in some forms, by applying the *s* or the *z*, to distinguish a verb from a substantive, as in devise (deviser) alongside of device, advise (adviser) alongside of advice, apprise alongside of price.

c is also so applied for the Anglosaxon *s*: addice (adese and adz, adze), fleece (fleós), mice (mýs), lice (lýs), ice, icy (is, isig); here belong also the adverbial forms in *ce*, at the root of which there lies an Old-English original genitive *s*, as twice, thrice, once, whence, hence, thence, since, Old-English twies, thries, ones, whennes, whens, hennes, hens, thennes, thens, sithens. In Skelton we find the forms ones, whens, hens,

syns. Even bodice = stays seems to stand for the plural bodies.

A dental *c* seems to have occasionally taken the place of the Romance sibilant *ch*; yet here recourse might be had to the Latin forms, for instance in decipher (French déchiffrer, yet Medieval-Latin ciffara, Arabic safar), cornice (French corniche, Italian cornice, from coronis, confounded with cornix?); so too in pumice (Latin pumicem) and pumice-stone, where the Anglo-saxon has the Guttural: pumicstân. *c* certainly interchanges, even in English, with *ch* in cibol, ciboul and chibbal (French ciboule, Latin cepa, Italian cipolla).

The dental *sc* has attached itself to the Romance and Latin *sc*: science (French, the same), sceptre (the like), scion (French scion); — deliquesce, effloresce and so forth. Yet it has also taken the place of a single *s*, as in the originally Anglo-saxon scythe (sîðe), or *ss*, as in bascinet (French basinet). This very *sc* also interchanges with the dental *c*: scymitar alongside of cimeter (French cimeterre, of Turkish origin), scissors alongside of cissors (ciseaux), as in Old-French sceller alongside of seeler and others.

In Scythia, Scythian the English does not attach itself to the Anglo-saxon form Scytðia, Scyððja, but to the Latin.

Ch is guttural with the sound of *k*, and dental as a sibilant. The aspirated *ch* was completely foreign to Anglo-saxon before the eleventh century. Upon the later *ch* see 2.

1) The guttural **ch** takes the place;

of the oriental sound, at the beginning of a word, represented in Latin writing by *ch*: Chaldea, although this here and there passes into the dental sibilant, as in cherub, cherubim; in the middle and at the end of a word: Michael, Old-English Mighelmesse (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 260), Enoch;

the Greek *χ*, Latin *ch*: chimera, chaos, chlamys, Christ (although Anglo-saxon Crist); anchoret, anchorite (anachoreta, although Anglo-saxon ancor, ancra), mechanic, technical; — distich, epoch, eunuch, conch (κόγχη, concha), anarch; — also in the compound *sch*: scheme (σχῆμα). Some few words have in common life assumed the dental pronunciation of *ch* (see above p. 62.). Words, which have passed through the French, have likewise sometimes retained the French dental pronunciation: machine and the like; as others (especially in the syllable arch) have reached it through the Anglo-saxon *c* before a clear vowel: archbishop, (arcebishop);

of the Italian *ch*, as in machiavelism;

of the Celtic *ch*: loch (in Scotland, lough upon Irish maps) pronounced in English with *k* (Cymric llwch, Irish louch), pib-roch, pibrach (Gaelic piobaireachd).

The Germanic *ch* appears, although mute, in yacht (Hollandish yacht), otherwise in the compound *sch* (see 2.).

The rendering of an Anglo-saxon *c* by a guttural *ch* is rare, as in ache, also pelt ake (Old-English verb aken, preterite oke, Anglo-saxon verb acan, substantive ece, ace, æce), which according

to Smart was pronounced in Shakspeares time like aitch (with a dental *ch*). See 2.

On the other hand a Latin and Romance guttural *c* is sometimes rendered by *ch*; *ch* is certainly sometimes found in some words in Latin, alongside of *c*, and has also passed over into Old-French: sepulchre (sepulcre, sepulchre, Latin sepulcrum, -chrum), anchor (ancre, Latin ancora, anchora, Anglosaxon ancor, oncor); chamlet, camlet, camelot (camelot, Medieval-Latin camelotum, camallotum). Also stands alongside of lilach, lilac (Italian lilac, French lilas).

A guttural *ch* stands alongside of *g* in chambrell or gambrell (the hindfoot of a horse) which belongs to the French gambe, jambe and to the root cam, crooked (Zeu'ss Gr. Celt. 1, 75). Thus the Old-English lets in *g* for *ch*: Nabugodonosor, Modern-English Nebuchodonosor.

- 2) The dental *ch* is in Modern-English a sibilant with a *t* prefixed, which therefore, if combined with *ch*, indicates the reduplication of the *t*, whereas the French sound of *ch* appears only in words which have been naturalized from France in recent times. The former is however found both in those borrowed from the Old-French and in those in which *ch* has been developed out of an Anglosaxon *c*, on which account we might presume that the Old-French *ch*, as well as the *c* before clear vowels represented *tsch*, and gave rise to its intrusion into English. Yet the development upon English soil of the *ch* commencing with the dental *t*, as well as that of *g* (and *j*) commencing with the dental *d*, is the more natural assumption, and that warranted by other tongues, in which, however, the influence of the French sound of the *ch*, *g* and *j* upon the Anglosaxon pronunciation seems to be without doubt, in as much as the Old-French *ch*, *g* and *j* had made the transition from gutturals to dentals decidedly earlier, and at the most met the English halfway.

The dental *ch* (*tsch*) has essentially taken the place of the Anglosaxon *c* at the beginning and in the middle of words before clear vowels, at the end of words, where it originally stood before clear vowels, but also else where. How far it has yielded to the *k*, was observed above. The Anglosaxon offers, even in the eleventh century, *ch* instead of *c*, as *chîdan*, *chêce* at the beginning, *muchel*, *cuchene* (*cycene*), *biseccan* in the middle and *ich* (*ic*), *swilch* (*svylc*) at the end of a word. See Ettmüller, Lex. Anglos. p. XXVII. The Old-English soon received these forms and appropriated the reduplication *cch* after a short vowel: *chiden*, *cheke*, *muchel*, *bisechen*, *ich*, *swich* and with *cch*: *bicche* (Anglosaxon *bicce* = bitch), *fecchen* (Anglosaxon *feccan* = fetch), *lacchen* (Anglosaxon *laccan* = to catch). Yet *k* (*c*) still stand in the beginning and at the end of a word: *biseken*, *lakken*, *ic*, *swylke*, a fluctuation, which even now partly takes place in the final *ch* and *k*.

ch for an Anglosaxon *c* at the beginning of a word: *chide* (*cîdan*), *child* (*cild* or *cîld*), *cheek* (*cêce*), *cheese* (*cêse*), *chafer* (*ceafor*), *chaff* (*ceaf*), *choose* (*ceósan*), *chew* (*ceóvan*),

church (cyrice see above); in the middle seldom, the sound in the middle of the Anglosaxon word having mostly become the final sound in English: kitchen (cycene); at the end of a word it has often come in, where *c* originally stood before a clear vowel: bitch, (bicce), pilch (pylce), church (cyrice). Yet *k* is also put before a clear vowel in the middle and at the end of Anglosaxon words: chicken (cicen), flicker (flyccerjan), cheek (cēce, according to Grimm however cēac). Verbs in *jan*, *ēan* and *an* with or without a consonant preceding the Anglosaxon *c* frequently transmute *c* into *ch*: teach (tæcan), Old-English *techen*; reach (ræcan, racēan and recjan, recēan, reccan), Old-English *rechen*; stretch (streccan), Old-English *strechen*; thatch (peccan), Old-English *theccen*; catch (compare the Old-norse *kāka* = leviter attricare), Old-English *cacchen*; clutch, Old-English *clucchen*, drench (drencēan, drencan), Old-English *drenchen* = drown; stench (stencan = odorare), belch (bealcjan), Old-English on the other hand *belken*, as still in the North of England. Alongside of these stand forms like rake (racjan, racigēan), speak (sprēcān, spēcān), sink (sincan), stink (stinkan), drink (drincan), think (pencēan, pencan) and so forth, which Old-English likewise commonly gives with *k*. In Modern-English seek (sēcēan, sēcan) and beseech (besēcan), Old-English *seken* and *sechen*, biseken and besēchen, stand strikingly alongside of each other; beseech still in Spenser and Shakspeare. In other classes of words, in which the Anglosaxon made the word end in *c*, *ch* has likewise frequently taken its place: rich (ric), Norwich (Norðvic), speech (spæc), finch (finc), bench (benc); instead of *c* after a short vowel and *cc* stands *tch*: pitch (pic), crutch (crycc); on the other hand pock (pocce, poc), flock (flocc) &c. Old-English and Modern-English here too often disagree; for instance thack, Modern-English thatch (pāc), Old-English ilk, Modern-English each, but the Old-English also eche. *k* and *ch* become occasionally distinctive marks of the parts of speech, as in bleak (blāc, blæc), and bleach (blæcean, blæcan) and some of the above quoted words; but they often run without distinction parallel to each other; as in those compounded of the Anglosaxon *vīc* = portus *vīc* = vicus which in Modern-English sound *wic*, *wick* and *wich*.

In some double forms the French influence mingles with the Anglosaxon: marches, confines, Anglosaxon *mearc* = limes and signum, to which belong the English mark, Old-English *merk* = token. Old-French *marche*, *marce* = limit; marquess and marchioness (Old-French *markis*, *marchis*, Medieval-Latin *marchio*); break and breach both belong to the Anglosaxon *brāc* = fractio, but the latter is to be referred primarily to the French *brèche*.

In roach *ch* is put for *hh* (Anglosaxon *reohha*, Latin *raja*).

A dental *ch* (*tsch*) also frequently arises out of the Old-French *ch*, which likewise had mostly developed itself out of the guttural *c*, *k*, although where in Old-French *c* and *ch* interchanged with each other in Old-French, in English a guttural *c* is preserved.

At the beginning of a word, rarely before clear vowels, mostly before a primitive (Latin) *a*, as in the French: chimney, (chimenee, ceminée), chieve and cheve (provincial) and achieve (chevir and achever, achiever from chef = caput), chisel (ciseler, ciseau, Old-French also chisel), change (changier, cauger), charm (charmer), challenge (chalengier, calengier), chamber (chambre, cambre), chattel (chatel, catel, whence the English cattle, Latin capitale), chase (chasser); in choice (choix) the French form mingles with the Germanic choose. In the middle and at the end before obscure and clear vowels, as in French, where *ch* in the middle, which in English often becomes the final sound, arose out of *c*, *x*, *tc*, *dc*, *ct*, *pj* and so forth: archer (archier, archer), truncheon (tronçon, trouchon), merchant (marcheant, marchand), bachelor (bacheler, baceler), preacher, preach (precheres, precher, Anglosaxon predicere, predicjan); blancher, blanch (blancheor, blanchir, compare Anglosaxon blanca = equus albus and blæcān, blæcan = albare, English bleach), launch lancer, lanchier), paunch (pance, panche), March (Mars, March), march (marcher), porch (porche, Anglosaxon portic), broach (broche, broce, to the Latin brochus, broccus), vouch (vochier, vocher from vois, voix).

Ch interchanges in Old-French also with *ss*, and is also rendered by an English *sh* (see p. 143.); we likewise find *tch* after a short vowel substituted for the latter: escutcheon, scutcheon (escusson), sketch (esquisse), caroché (carosse, Medieval-Latin carrocium, carrochium).

The words brought over with the French sound of the *ch* are few in number, as chaise, champaign (Old-French champagne), chevisance (from the Old-French chevir, compare the Modern-French chevance), champerty, champertor (cham-part, champarteur) &c.; but it is striking that even older words preserve the French sound or might again adopt it.

By the substitution of *sh* for *ss* (*s*) and *ch*, as well as *ch*, in English, with which on its side an English *ch* often clashes, it is explicable that the two latter sometimes interchange with one another in English, as in shinghle and chingle (Old-Highdutch scindala); the older forms debosh, deboish have yielded to debauch.

Sometimes forms in *c* and *ch* are met together. They come from French words, in which a dental *c* interchanged with *ch*; hence chive and cive (chive, cive, from the Latin caepa), Old-English chibolle (Modern-French ciboule, compare the Lowdutch zipoll). Words in which an English *ch* corresponds to the French *c*, suppose a collateral form in *ch*: pinch (pincer), punch (compare poinçonner, Italian punzar, punchar, and the Anglosaxon pyngan = pungere). Cherry points not so much to the French cerise, as to the Anglosaxon cirse, cyrse; also chirp (Highdutch zirpen) points to the Anglosaxon *c*, (compare the Old-English chirk, Anglosaxon cearcjan = stridere); larch, a kind of pine, from the Latin larix, reminds us of the Italian larica, French larèche? On the other hand etch quite corresponds to

the Modern-Highdutch *aetzen*, as *cratch*, *scratch*, Old-English *cracchen*, does to the Old-Highdutch *krazjan*. Similar is the representation of the Anglosaxon *ð* by *tch* in the unusual *swatch*, alongside of *swath* (Anglosaxon *svaðu*).

ch has also likewise sometimes developed itself out of a guttural *g*; orchard (Anglosaxon *ortgeard*, Old-norse *jurtagardr*) is an instance. The case is indeed more frequent in Old-English that a dental *g* was changed into *ch*: *grucchen* (Modern-English *grudge* (French *gruger*). So too conversely *ch* and *g* sometimes interchange in Modern-English: *ostrich* and *estridge* (*autruche*), *spinnach*, *spinach* and *spinage* (Italian *spinace*), with which we may compare the obsolete *bodge* alongside of *botch*.

G is partly guttural, partly dental; upon its dental pronunciation compare *c* above.

- 1) The guttural *g* arises chiefly from the Anglosaxon *g*, although this in a limited measure passes over into *y*, in the middle of a word after vowels often becomes softened into *i* (compare *sail*, Anglosaxon *sēgel*, *sēgl*) or into *w* (compare *own*, Anglosaxon *āgen*), at the end likewise often becomes *y* and *w* (compare *key*, Anglosaxon *cæg*; *bow*, Anglosaxon *beogan*). It is therefore most frequently preserved at the beginning of a word: *gird* (*gyrdan*), *gild* (*gildan*), *get* (*gētan*), *gallows* (*galga*), *good* (*gōd*), *gut*, *guts* (*gut*); *glide* (*glīdan*), *greet* (*grētan*); also before *n* although here extinct in pronunciation at the beginning of a word: *gnaw* (*gnagan*), *gnat* (Modern-Highdutch *gnitze*), *gnar*, *gnarl* (from the Anglosaxon *gnýrran* = *stridere*, Lowdutch *gnarren*). In the middle of a word it has seldom remained without reduplication: *wagon* and *waggon* alongside of *wain* (*vāgen*, *vāgn*, *væn*), *dagger* (Old-norse *daggardr*, Swedish and Danish *daggert*), *swagger* (from the Anglosaxon *svēgian* = *praevalere*); frequent after *n*: *finger* (*fīnger*), *anger* (from the Anglosaxon *ange*, compare the obsolete *angerness*, Anglosaxon *angniss*), *monger* (*mangere*), *hunger* (*hungur*), *brangle* and *wrangle* (compare the Lowdutch *brangen* and *wrangen* = to scuffle).

At the end of English words it is not rare after clear and obscure vowels, as after *n*: *pig* (Highdutch dialectically *bigge*, *betze*?), *big* (?), *whig* alongside of *whey* (*hvæg* = *serum lactis*), *wrig*, now commonly *wriggle* (Lowdutch *wricken*, *wriggeln*, *wrickeln*, compare the Anglosaxon *vrigjan* = *tendere*, *vrixljan* = *alternare*, *reciprocare*), *twig* (*tvīg*), *leg* (Old-norse *leggr* = *crus*), *peg* (?), *beg* (from the Gothic *bidagva* = a beggar?), *shag*, whence *shaggy* (Anglosaxon *sceacga* = *caesaries*, Old-norse *skegg*), *stag* (Old-norse *steggr* = *mas plurium ferarum*), *hag* (Anglosaxon *hāgtys*, *hāges*, Old-norse *hagr* = *sapiens*), *crag* = *neck* (from the Highdutch *kragen*, Swedish *krage*), *dog* (Old-norse *doggr*), *fog* (Danish *fog* = a shower of snow, yet Old-English *fock*), *frog* (Anglosaxon *frogga*, *frocca*), *drug* (to the Anglosaxon *dryge*, from *drugjan* = *arescere*, belongs the French *drogue*); *ing* (*inge* = *pratum*), *sing* (*singan*), *sing* (*svingan*), *bang* (Old-norse *bānga* = *pulsare*), *fang* (*fangan*), *throng*

(prang, prong); with double *g*: egg (äg) and to egg instead of edge. After vowels a double *g* (*cg*) has often become dental (see 2), after *n* in the verb singe (sengan = ustulare) and cringe (cringan, crincan). Old-English preserved a few more forms in *g*, as big = build (bycgan = aedificare).

The Old-French guttural *g* also, mostly before obscure vowels and consonants, usually remains guttural in English: garnish (garnir, guar nir), gallop (galoper), so too in gittern alongside of guitar (guitarre), gie alongside of guide (Old-French guier, guider), orgillous (which reminds us primarily of the Old-French orguillous, but belongs to the Anglosaxon orgol, orgel = superbia), linget (French lingot). In the middle of a word it often appears before clear vowels, in the metathesis *gre*: eager (aigre), tiger (tigre, Latin tigris), conger (congre, Latin conger, congrus).

Occasionally too, a dental French *g* has become guttural: gizzard (gesier, Latin gigeria), gibbous (gibbeux, Latin gibbosus).

The *g* brought over from the Latin and the Greek remains regularly guttural, where it originally stood before consonants and before obscure vowels; yet even here exceptions are found before clear vowels. See the pronunciation.

Finally, a guttural *g* has also arisen from a primitive guttural *c* (*k*); even in Anglosaxon such forms as frocca, frogga, frogga and frox = frosc (frog, in Old-English also frosh) stand alongside of each other. In English fig corresponds to the Anglosaxon fic (whether under the influence of the Old-French fige = figne?), sprig substantive and verb, Anglosaxon sprec and spreccan = fruticare, but the Old-English sprek = ramentum; dig belongs to the Anglosaxon dic = agger; the Old-English has diken, dychen and dyggen (MAUNDEV.) alongside of each other. Thus too at the beginning of a word in the sixteenth century gaggle stands for cackle (see HALLIW. s. v.), compare the Highdutch gakeln and kakeln. Sometimes likewise in French words: flagon (flacon), sugar (sucre, Spanish and Portuguese azucar), shog and shock (Old-French choque, Modern-French choc); periwig corrupted from perruque. Spenser uses aeglogue for eclogue, and in common life docket or doquet is confounded with dogget.

Instead of the simple *g* there often stands, according to French precedent, and mostly in words taken from that language, *gu*, in which *u* serves at the same time to harden the *g* before clear vowels, yet it is found also before obscure vowels. In Old-French *gu* served to represent the Germanic *w* (Gothic *r*), especially at the beginning of a word, seldom the Latin *r*, and interchanged with *w* and *g*; in Modern-French *g* remains before obscure vowels. Here Anglosaxon and Old-French forms often meet. That this *u* is sometimes condensed into *w*, even before clear vowels, concerns the doctrine of the pronunciation (see p. 65). It stands at the beginning of a word: guide (guider), guile, beguile also wile (the former belonging to the Old-French guile, guiler, guiller, also ghiller, giler, the latter to the Anglosaxon vile),

guise and wise (the former belonging to the Old-French guise, the latter to the Anglosaxon vise), whence disguise (desguiser), Guy (Guy, Old-Highdutch Wido, Wito = Veit), guard (guarder, warder), guarish (SPENSER) (guarir, warir, garir), Guelfs, Guelphs (Guelfes, compare the Anglosaxon hvelp = catulus, Old-Highdutch Huelp = Welf), guerdon (guerredon, gerredon, werdon) whence also reward. In the middle of a word *gu* rests in part upon the Latin *gu*, as in languish (languir, Latin languere), distinguish (distinguer, Latin distinguere), language (Old-French langage alongside of langue, lange, Latin lingua), Old-English langage. At the end of a word it is identical with the French *g* and *u*, as a sign of the hardening of the *g*: vague (vague adjective), fatigue &c.

gu for a simple *g* has also penetrated Germanic words: guild (gild), guilt (gylt), guess (Swedish gissa, Danish gisse, compare the Old-norse giska = conjecturare), guest (gäst, gest, gist); at the end of a word in tongue.

The same is the case in some other words, where the French gave no support to it: plague (Latin plaga, compare French plaie), prorogue (French proroger, Latin prorogare); rogue seems of Celtic origin. May it belong to the Celtic rogar = knave?

Old-English, like Old-French, often employed *g* instead of *gu*: gile, gyle still in Skelton, gise, gilteles, gesse &c.; language, tonge, also roge.

For a guttural *c* (*k*, *q*) *que* stands at the end in the Romance disemboque (Spanish disembocar, compare the Old-French boche, bouce, bouque); it is equal to the Cymric *ch* in hog (Cymric hwch).

gh has principally a place in the middle and at the end of words, and has essentially taken the place of the Anglosaxon *h*, only this has sometimes been totally rejected in the middle and at the end of words, as it often was in Anglosaxon. But this *h* is in close contact with *g* and *c*; for in Anglosaxon *g* and *e* before *t* passed into *h*, and at the end of a word *g* after *l* and *r*, as well as after a long vowel or diphthong, was changed into *h*. We therefore find the *gh* in older English often represented by *ȝ*, as in *cizȝe*, *Wyȝt*, *myȝte*, *fȝȝte*, *broȝte* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *almigȝti*, *figȝter* (in WYCLIFFE), *myȝt*, *sigt*, *nyȝt*, *digȝt* (in ROBIN HOOD) and so forth. The sound of this *gh* was originally that of the Highdutch *ch*, apart from the partial, originally perhaps dialectic pronunciation as *f*, which has become established in some words in Modern-English. It has been before shown that a final *h* (*g*) has been transmuted into *w* (*ow*). Moreover, formerly it was also entirely cast out, as in *thaut* nout, *sout*, *i-brout*, *mi thout* (DANE SIRIZ p. 12.), *hye* (high), *poru* in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER and others. The Scottish, which, in ancient times, wrote and pronounced *thoch*, *rycht*, *nycht*, *nocht*, *wrocht*, *nicht* speaks for the sound *ch*. We are not here regarding the initial *gh*. At present *gh* is almost always mute.

gh in the middle of a word is hardly ever met with but in inflective forms and derivatives. The English roots present it as the final sound, or as final with a *t* after it, and that only after the vowels *i* (*ei*), *u* (*au*, *ou*): *nigh*, *nigher* (*neáh*, *nêh*), to which neighbour (*neáhbúr*, *neábúr*), *high* (*heáh*, *heá*), *thigh* (*peóh*), *though* (*peáh*), *through*, *thorough* (*purh*, *puruh*), *dough* (*dâg*, *dâh*); here perhaps also belongs *bough*, Old-English *bow* (from the Anglosaxon *beógan*?). It enters for the Anglosaxon *g* in the rare *stigh*, compare the dialectic *stighrope* (*stigan*, *stigeráp*), *weigh* (*vēgan*), *neigh* (*hnægan*), *plough* (Old-norse *plōgr*), *Hugh* (Old-Highdutch *Hugo*), where collateral forms like *sty*, *weyen*, *plow* occur in Old-English. It frequently stands before *t*: *might* (*meaht*, *miht*), *night* (*neah*, *niht*), *light* (*lihtan* = *levare*), *right* (*riht*, *rēht*), *plight* (*pliht*, verb *plihtan*); *Wight* (*Viht*), *weight* (*viht*), *eight* (*eahta*), *caught* (Old-English also *caȝte*), *taught* (*tæhte*, *tæht*), *bought* (*bohte*, *boht*) &c., *freight* (Old-Highdutch *vraht*), *Leighton* and *Layton* (*Ligtūn*). After *r*, *gh* still stands in *burgh* (*buruh*, *burh*, *burg*) alongside of *borough*, where *gh* still sounds like *g*; in Old-English still oftener, for example in *bergh* = *mount* (*beorg*, *beorh*) and *borgh*, *borough* in the plural *borwe*, *borwes* (*borga*, a *pledge*, *borg*, *borh*) in *PIERS PLOUGHMAN*.

The Old-English still often has, alongside of the rejection of the *gh*, forms with it, which are no longer in use in Modern-English; thus *droȝ*, *drogh*, *drough*, *drowghe*, Modern-English *drew* (*drōg*), *slough*, *slowghe*, Modern-English *slew* (*slōh*), *lagh* Modern-English *law* (*lah*) and others.

gh has also sometimes, in analogy to the representation of the primitive Anglosaxon *gt*, *α*, been employed for the Latin *α*, as the Anglosaxon *ht* also entered for the Latin *ct*; compare *dihtan*, Old-Highdutch *tictōn*, *dihtōn*, Latin *dictare*, formerly English *dight*; thus the Old-English has *Benedight* (*Benedictus*), *Shakspeare* extraught for *extracted*. On this rests *delight* (Old-French *deleiter*, *deliter* and *delecher*) alongside of *delectable*, Old-English *delit*, *delitable* with reference to the Latin *delectare*. So too *gh* is represented by the Latin *c*: *Liwghor* (*Leucarus*), *Brougham* (*Broccavum*).

The Latin *h* is treated as an Anglosaxon one in *inveigh* (*invehi*), compare *invective*. *gh* in *spright* alongside of *sprite* = *spirit* is without foundation. In *straight*, Old-English *streit*, which also partly coincides with *strait*, Medieval-Latin *strictum* = *détroit*, the French *estroit*, *estreit*, Latin *strictus*, seems to blend with the Anglosaxon *streht* from *streccan*, Old-English *streight*.

Where *gh* in rare cases at the end of words corresponds in pronunciation to the guttural *k* (*ck*), *h* likewise is at the basis: *hough* (*hō*, *hōh*), whence the verb *hough* = *hamstring*; *shough* = *shaggy dog*, also spelt *shock*, belongs to the Anglosaxon *sceacga*. The Irish *lough*, Scottish *loch* is of another kind.

The mutilation of *Livorno*, Latin *Liburnum* into *Leghorn*, where *gh* has the sound of the guttural *g* is striking.

gh in the middle and at the end of a word has sometimes become the labial *f*, especially at the end and before *t*; the etymology of the words belonging here is not always clear, although their *gh* mostly points to *h* (*g*, *c*) and conversely to an *f*, transmuted into *gh*. The transition of *gh* into the *f*-sound has numerous analogies in other tongues: compare K. Schwenck's Dictionary, 4th Edition p. XIV., Schoetensack's Grammar of the Modern-Highdutch tongue p. 26. In Old-English, as well as even now in English Dialects, it goes much further than in the general speech of the educated in modern times. Old-English *doftyr* = daughter (RITSON), *caufte* = caught (HALLIWELL s. v.), *thofe* = though (IBID.) and thus in Old-English and still in Northern-English *thruff*, *thurf* = through, *thoft* — thought in Devon and else where. Instances in Modern-English are: enough, Old-English *ynow* (*genôh*, *genôg*), *tough* (*toh*), *trough* (*trog*, *troh*), *rough* (*hreôh*, *hreôg*, *hreôv* alongside of *breav*, English *raw*), *slough*, the cast off skin of a snake and *scurf* (from the Anglosaxon *slahan*, as *slough*, a filthy pool, with mute *gh*, Anglosaxon *slôg?*), *chough* (compare the Old-Highdutch *couch*, *gouch*), *cough* (compare the Anglosaxon *ceahhettan* = *cachinnari*, Highdutch *keuchen*, *keichen*), *clough*, *ravine* (whether from the Anglosaxon *cleófan*, *clúfan* and thence also *clough*), *draugh* and *draff* (compare the Anglosaxon *drabbe* from *drêfan* = *turbare*), compare the Old-norse *badstofa*, Swedish *badstuga*, Danish *badstue*; *draught* and *draf* (*drôht* = *tractus*), from *dragan*, whence the English *draw* and *drag*, Old-English also *dray*, *laugh*, *laughter* (*hleahhan*, *hlihhan* and *hleahtor*). *Chincough* with a final *f*-sound, and even *hiccough* with a final *p*-sound, seem nearly allied, in as much as both are compounded of *cough* (see above). Also *chin(c)* and *hic* may be related and of the same root as *cough*. Compare the Swedish *kik-hosta*, Lowdutch *kink-hoost* and Lowdutch *hik-up*.

With the transition of the Guttural into the Labial also agrees the affinity of *sigh* (with mute *gh*) to the Anglosaxon *seofjan* alongside of *sican*, whence the Old-English and dialectic *sike*; and *furlough* with the Hollandish *verlof*; compare the Anglosaxon *lufu* = *amor* and *leáf* = *permissio*.

Of peculiar nature is *gh*, which at the beginning of some words before clear and obscure vowels appears instead of a primitive *g* with its guttural sound, occasionally interchanging with *gu* and *g*. Thus *gh* is sometimes met with in Medieval-Latin, as, in Italian also, before clear vowels it represents the guttural *g*; Old-French writes alongside of *g* and *gu* also *gh* in *ghise*, *ghiller*, *ghernon*, *ghenchir*. From the latter the initial *gh* seems to have penetrated into English. We find it in the words: *Ghibelline*, *gherkin* (Highdutch *gurke* from the Latin *cucurbita*), *ghastful*, *aghost*, in Shakspeare *ghast* as a verb, *ghost* (*gâst*, *gæst* = *halitus*, and *gæsan* = *percellere*, whence the English *agaze*), also *ghyll* alongside of the usual *gill* (Old-norse *gil*), in Spenser *ghesse* for *guess*. The French (*gueux*) are rendered by *Gheux* (PHILLIPS). The Old-English *gheet* is of the same

meaning as goats. Dialectically ghizzern stands for gizzard, gherm for garden; in the Isle of Wight ghenge means the depth of a furrow. In the North of England even the dental *g* is hardened into *gh*: ghibe instead of gibe.

In oriental words this *gh* is likewise sometimes found used: Afghan, Afghanistan, ghaut, ghee (from the Indian), ghoul (from the Arabic) and many more.

- 2) The dental *g*, pronounced with *d* before it, and in its reduplication represented by *dg*, occurs in Germanic and Romance words, but in words originally Anglosaxon not at the beginning of a word, for in words like giant (Anglosaxon *gigant*) and gem (Anglosaxon *gimm*) the Anglosaxon and the French forms blend (Old-French *geme*, *gemme*, *jame* and *jaiant*, *géant*).

The Anglosaxon *g* has become dental after *n* in *singe* and *cringe* (see p. 155.); in *angel* not so much the Anglosaxon *engel* as the Old-French *angele* along with *aingle*, *angle* at the basis; in the older *targe* (Anglosaxon *targe* = *clypeus*), whence *target* with a guttural *g* is derived, the Old-French *targe*, Medieval-Latin *targia* seems to have effected the dental pronunciation of the *g*.

On the other hand the dental *dg* often enters instead of the reduplicated Anglosaxon *gg* (*cg*): *midge* (*mycg*, *micg*, *mygge*), *ridge* (*hrycg*), *bridge* (*brycg*, *bricg*), *edge* (*ecg*), *edge*, verb alongside of *egg* (*ecgan*, *eggjan*), *wedge* (Old-norse *veggr* = *cuneus* and *paries*, Danish *vægge* = *cuneus*), *sedg* (*secg* = *gladiolus carex*). The Old-English has here a double *g*: *brigge*, *eggen* &c. In other words the fundamental tongue only presents a single *g*: *hedge* (*hege* and *häg*, compare *Haag*), *fidget*, otherwise also *fidge* (Danish *fige* = to hurry), Old-norse *fika* = *festinare*), *fadge* (*fagjan* = *ornare*, Old-Highdutch *fagjan*, *fagön* = *satisfacere*, *expedire*); many words are of unclear origin, as *badge* (Medieval-Latin *bagia*), a sign, mark (whether from *beógan*, compare *beáh*, *beág* = *corona*, *annulus*?), *badger* (compare the Swedish *bagge*, a ram?), *badger*, *huckster*, *seller* (compare Italian *biadajuolo*, *badger* and *cornchandler*); *cadge*, to bear and *cadger*, *huckster*, belonging to *cadge*, a pole; *dodge* (according to Ettmüller from the Anglosaxon *dydrjan* = *illudere*) and others.

Wage belongs not to the Highdutch *wagen*, but to the Old-French *gager*, *wager*, substantive *gage*, *wage*, from the Gothic *vadi*, with which the Anglosaxon *ved*, *veddjan*, English *wed agrees*.

In Romance words the dental *g* answers to the same sound; after a short vowel it is reduplicated as *dg*: *gibbet* (*gibet*, compare Diez R.-Wb. p. 175), *gipon* also *juppon* (*jupon*, *gippon*), *gibe* (in Champagne: *giber* = *jouer*), *gin*, also *geneva* (*genièvre*), *genet*, *gennet* (*genêt*, Latin *genista*), *gender* (*gendre*) *gaol* and *jail* (*gaiole* *gaole*); — *ginger* (*gingembre*), *burgess* (*bourgeois*), *sage* (*sauge*, Latin *salvia*), Old-English *save*; *rage*, *cage* and others; *judge* (*juge*, *juger*), *lodge* (*loge*, *loger*) &c.

Latin words, and words which have passed through the Latin commonly retain the dental *g*, when it stood originally before clear vowels: gingival (from *gingiva*), genius, geminate (*geminare*), gynarchy, georgics (*georgica*), dialogize, diallage, absterge (*abstergere*); yet divulge, for instance, agrees neither with the Latin *divulgare*, nor the French *divulguer*; purge (*purgare*) has perhaps followed the French purger.

Words like Roger (Anglosaxon *Hrôdgâr*, French Roger) are of course modelled after the French; here belongs also harbinger (from the Anglosaxon *herebirigan*, Old-French *herbergier*), wherein *r* has been changed into *n*, and which occurs in the Old-English form *herbarjour*, *harbegier*.

A dental *g* has occasionally been formed out of *s* and a dental *c*, *ch* in an unaccented syllable: cabbage (Medieval-Latin *gabusia*, French *cabus*), sausage (French *saucisse* = Latin *salsicia*), partridge (*perdrix*, Latin *perdix*, -icis, Old-English, *partryk*, *partrich*), cartridge (*cartouche* as it were Latin *chartoceum*), in Spenser: *galage* (*galoche* from the Latin *gallica*). In revenge however not the Modern-French *revancher*, but the Old-French *vanger*, *vangier* lies at the foundation. Compare the Old-French *nage*, Modern-French *nache*. Conversely the Old-English often puts *ch* for *g*: *grucchen* (*grudge*, French *gruger*), *partrich* (*partridge*), *beverache* (*beverage*), as *knowlecchen* for *knowledge*, although more correctly (Old-norse *kunnleiki*, *notitia*).

As in Old-French so also in English the likesounding *g* and *j* interchange with each other: *gelly* and *jelly* (*gelée*), *gingle* and *jingle* (compare the Old-French *jangler*, *gangler*), *gipon* and *juppon* and others. Thus also *Giles*, *Gill*, *Gillian* are derived from the Latin *Julius*, *Julia*, *Julianus*.

H, apart from its union with other phonetic signs, as *th*, *sh*, *ch*, *gh*, belongs principally to the beginning of words, where it is occasionally silent, as at the end; and where it is sounded, represents the so called aspirate, for which the language is indebted to the Anglosaxon *h* before vowels, and to which the weaker Old-French *h* was perhaps not equivalent.

It arises from the Anglosaxon and Romance *h*; an Anglosaxon *h* before the consonants *n*, *l*, *r*, was lost: *hill* (*hill*), *heel* (*hêl*), *harm* (*hearm*), *hate* (*hatjan*); — *hideous* (*hidos*, -us, -eus), *herse*, *port cullis* and *hearse*, a carriage for the dead &c. (*herse*, Medieval-Latin *hercia* from the Latin *hirpex*), *habergeon* (*haubergon*, *hauberjon* from *halbirt*, *haubert* also *habert*, Old-Highdutch *halsberc*), *haunt* (*hanter*, Old-norse *heimta*), *harness* (*harnas*, *harnois*, verb *harnacher*), *host* = hostile army (*ost*, *host*), *hostage* (*ostage*, *hostage* from *obsea*, Medieval-Latin *obsidatus*, *ostagius* as it were *obsidaticus*, um), *hour* (*hore*, *heure*, *ore*) and so on. Of course *h* has remained as the initial sound in Latin and Greek words, even though they have not passed through the Romance tongues, as in *hyacinth*, *hyads*, *hymn*, *hyphen*, *hysteric* &c. and in other foreign words, as *hospodar* &c. In Greek words *rh* is also found: *rhetoric*, *rheumatism* &c.

A final *h* of a word or of a syllable is found partly in inter-

jections, where it may originally have served to sharpen the vowel, and will have approximated to the Anglosaxon final *h*, as in *ah!* *hah!* *bah!* and many more; it is moreover found in the middle and at the end of foreign words: *Messiah*, *hallelujah!* *Allah* &c.

For *wh* instead of the Anglosaxon *hw* see **Metathesis**.

Words with and without an initial *h* of Romance and of Greek-Latin descent are often found alongside of each other. The Old-French took the lead in this: *hostler* and *ostler* (compare *hostel*, *ostel*), *hippocras* and *ipocras*, *homer* and *omer* (a Hebrew measure), *herpetology* and *erpetology* and many more, as in Old-English *heir* and *eir*, *eyr*, and even in Anglosaxon words: *hys* and *ys* (his), often in **ROB. OF GLOUCESTER**.

Y serves essentially to represent the Anglosaxon *j*, (= Gothic *j*) and the *g* which in Anglosaxon frequently took the place of *j*, particularly at the beginning of words before the clear vowels *e*, *i*, as well as before obscure ones with the prefix of *e* (*ea*, *eo*, *eo*); the genuine English *y* appears at present only at the beginning of a word.

Y stands for *j* and for an improper *g* in: *yea* (*jā*, *geā*), *year* (*gear*, *gēr*, Gothic *jēr*), *ye* (*gū*, Gothic *jus*), *yes* (*gēse*, *gise*, *gyse*), *yet* (*git*, *gēt*), *yond*, *yon* (*jānd*, *geond* = *illuc*, Gothic *jains* = *yon*), *yore* (*jāra*, *geāra*), *yoke* (*joc*, *juc*, *geoc*), *young* (*jung*, *geong*), *youth* (*jeōguð*, *geōguð*), *yule* (*jūl*, *geol*); — *yeast* and *yeast* (*gist*, compare the Old-Highdutch *jēsan*, later *jēren*). In *you*, *your* (*eóv*, *eóver*), the *y* (*j*) existing in the nominative *gē*, Gothic *jus*, has remained (Hallsaxon *guw*, *gure*, Lowdutch *jūch*, *jur*); in *yew* and *eugh*, it has been developed out of *i*, Medieval-Latin *juus* (Anglosaxon *eóv*, *iv*, Old-Highdutch *iwa*, *igo*). It corresponds to a High- and Lowdutch *j* in *yacht* (Hollandish *jacht*), *yager* (Highdutch *jäger*), *younger*, *younger*.

In Old-English even a *j* in the middle of a word has also produced a *y*. Namely, the infinitive termination *jan* and the termination of the first person of the present *je* passed over into the Old-English verb. The *j*, especially in the Infinitive of weak verbs and in the first person of the indicative of the second weak conjugation, became *g* or *igē* or a simple *ē*; for instance in *hergan* instead of *herjan*, *lufigēan* instead of *lufjan* and in the present, as *sealfige* alongside of those of the first conjugation in *je*, as *herje*. Thence originate the Old-English terminations of the infinitive and of the present *yen*, *ye* alongside of *ien*, *ie*, the latter of which went through all persons of the present, as this *y* was transferred to the preterite, where the first weak conjugation shewed *ē*. The semiconsonant nature of this *y* (*i*) comes out pretty decidedly. So the verbal conjugation: *tilyen*, *tilien*; — *tilye*, *tilie* — *tilyeth*, *tilieth*; — *tilyede*, *tilyeden* — (*tiljan*, *teoljan*), *sweryen* — *swerye* &c. (*sverjan*). The Old-French forms of the infinitive *ier* likewise, others presenting no *i*, were similarly treated; hence *maryen*, *marien* (*marier*), *scapyen*, *savyen* &c., whereout the vowel termination *y* was soon developed, as in *governyn*, *crouny*, *amendyn*, which agree with *repenty*, *servy*, *conquerry*, in which the vowel may seem to have been preserved from *ir*. Even Germanic forms in

y occur, as *endy* (endjan), *wemmy* (vemman) &c. Some of these terminations still continue in Modern-English.

From *g*, which has not demonstrably taken the place of *j*, or which sounds like *g* in High- and Lowdutch, an English *y* likewise sometimes proceeded: *yield* (gildan, gēldan, Gothic *fra-gildan*), *yell* (gillan, gēllan, Old-Highdutch gēllan), *yelt* (gilte, Old-norse *gilta* = *scrofa*), *yesterday* (gistran, geostran, Gothic *gistra-dagis*), *yard* (geard = *sepes*, Gothic *gards*, *garda*) and *yard* (geard, *gerd*, *gird*, Old-Highdutch *gartja*, *gerta*), *yarn* (gearn = *pensa*, Old-Highdutch *garn*), *yellow* (gēlu, *geolu*, Old-Highdutch *gēlo*) but *yolk* and *yelk* (*geoloca*, *geolca*), *yearn* (geornjan, Gothic *gairnjan*), *yawn* (gānjān = *aperire*, Old-Highdutch *ginēn*, but compare the Lowdutch *hōjānen*), so too *Yare*, a river (Latin *Garyenus*). The Old-English had also *y* instead of *g*, as in *yemen* (gēman, gŷman = *custodire*), *yeme* (geám = *cura*), whence perhaps *yeman* s. above p. 106. *foryeten*, *foryat*, *foryetten* (*forġetan*), *yeven*, *yaf*, *yeven*, (*gifan*), *yift* (*gift*), *yat*, *yate* = *porta* (*geát*, *gat* = *porta*), this still in North-English and Scottish; *yarken* (gearcjan = *parare*) even now in Northern dialects; *ayein*, *ayeins* (Anglosaxon preposition *gāgu*), Modern-English again, against.

y in Old-English also often took the place of a French *j*, as in *yoye*, *yoyfulle* (*joie*), *yoly* (*joli*), *yugement* (*jugement*) and many more. The form *yewys* instead of *jews* likewise does not perhaps rest upon the Anglosaxon *Judēas*. Even now moreover words with an initial *y* and *j*, interchange, as in unclear forms *jerk* and *yerk*, Old-English *yirk*, (compare Dieffenbach Wb. II. p. 377.) and *jade* alongside of the dialectic *yaud*, a bad horse, a strumpet.

Occasionally a French *y* has remained in the middle of a word: *bayard*, *bayonet*, as well as in other foreign words, for instance *bayadere*.

X was in Anglosaxon put in the middle and at the end of words for *cs*, *sc*, *gs* = *sg* and *hs*, never at the beginning. In Old-English it also sometimes penetrated the beginning of a word for *sh* (= *sc*), as in the Coventry Mysteries: *xal*, *xalt*, *xuld*, *xad* (*shed*) *stand*, and even in Skelton *xall*, *xulde* &c. This is also still the usage in English dialects.

At the beginning it is to be met with in Modern-English only in foreign words, mostly of Greek origin, as in *Xiphias* &c., *xebec*, Spanish *jabeque*, formerly with *x* instead of *j*.

In the middle and at the end of a word it stands for the Anglosaxon *x* and, like this, often also for those combinations of gutturals with *s* in which it might enter in Anglosaxon, although even where the Anglosaxon *let x* enter alongside of *sc*, *sh* is sometimes selected; compare *fish* (*fisc*, *fix*), *wash* (*vascan*, *vaxan*) as distinguished from *wax*, *ashes* (*asce*, *axe*), sometimes *sk*, compare *ask* (*āscjan*, *āxjan*), Old-English *axen*.

An instance in which, conversely, the Modern-English *x* answers to the older *sc*, is perhaps *mix* (Anglosaxon *miscan*, but compare the Latin *mixtum*). Thus *flexs* stands in the older English instead of *flesh* (*flæsc*).

An ancient *x* has been preserved in *mixen* (*mixen*, *myxen* =

sterquilinium), vixen (*fixen*), the obsolete *faxed* (*gefeaxôð*, *feaxed*, from *feax*, Old-norse *fax*, *juba*), *Exmouth* (*Exan mûða*), *Exeter* (*Exan cester*); compare the Latin name of a river *Isaca*, *Isca*; *six* (*six*), next (*neáhst*, *nêxt*), *flax* (*flæx*), *axe*, *Axe* (*acas*, *äx*, *eax*), *wax* (*veaxan*) and *wax* (*veax*, *väx*), *ox* (*oxa*, *ohsa*), *fox* (*fox*).

It often arises in English from the contraction of *k* (*c*) and *s*, for instance in *pox*, Old-English *pokkes* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 431), from the Anglosaxon *pocce*; *coxcomb* alongside of *cockscumb*, *kex*, *Hemlock*, alongside of *kecksy*; hence the propername *Baxter* for *bakester*, *bakstere*. The Old-English word *buxom* = obedient, *gay*, which has no equivalent in Anglosaxon, belongs to the Anglosaxon *beógan*, *bûgan*: compare the dialectic form *bucksome* = jolly, in the South of England.

The Romance, as well as the Latin and Greek *x*, unless the latter have been already changed by the Romance tongue, are commonly preserved: *example* (Old-French *example*), *exist* (*exister*, Latin *exsistere*), *excellent*, *anxiety*, *luxury*, *fix* (*fixer*, Latin *fixus*), *tax* &c. Occasionally *x* is resolved into *cs*, as in *ecstasy*, *ecstatic*, alongside of *extasy*, *extatic* and others.

In *exchequer*, in Old-English also *cheker* and *eschekere*, the Old-French *eschakier*, *eschequier*, *eskiekier*, Medieval-Latin *scacarium* (belonging to *schach*) lies at the root. The form arises through the double rendering of the *sc*, *sk*. Thus *excheve* arose out of the Old-French *eschiver*, *eskiver*. See HALLIWELL s. v.

Changes of the primitive word through its contraction and amplification.

Among the changes which the surviving vocabulary of the English tongue has gradually undergone, the contraction and amplification of the word in its vocal volume, without loss or change of meaning, is to be observed. The unconscious tendency of cultivated nations to make their speech a more pliant and rapid expression of thought, is constantly doing detriment to the vocal material, while, on the other hand, the striving after convenience in pronunciation, the habituation of the organs of speech through analogous forms, and the clash of irreconcilable sounds, often caused by the very contraction of a word, are causes of an amplification of the vocal material. But the striving after shortness by far outweighs that after the amplification of the word, and the broadening of the language remains especially reserved to the uneducated, wherefore it belongs partly to popular dialects, which have often preserved the primitive plenitude of vocal material.

A) Contraction of the word.

The contraction does not commonly affect the kernel of the word, which presents itself at the syllable of the stem, and commonly also as the accented syllable, although here the two chief elements of the English tongue, the Anglosaxon and the French, so far diverge from each other that the French element has here

and there preserved its accent upon the full final syllable instead of the syllable of the stem. Contraction also principally begins with the casting out of an unaccented vowel, entailing therewith that of the consonant through its clash with another irreconcilable consonant. Yet even here and there a combination of consonants, in itself perhaps reconcilable, is repugnant to the popular habit. The following cases are in particular to be distinguished.

1) The falling off of vowels:

- a) at the beginning of a word. The falling off of a vowel is here rare, yet even Anglosaxon is not wholly wanting in instances, as in *biscop* (*episcopus*), *pistol* (*epistola*), Old-English *pistel*, Modern-English *epistle*, and the like. English has often again cast off the French *e* unorganically prefixed to *sp*, *sc*, *st*, or even the justified *e*: *spy* (*espie*) alongside of the verb *espy* (*espier*), although of Germanic origin (Old-Highdutch *spēhou*), *space* (*espace*), Spain (*Espagne*, Anglosaxon *Ispanja*, yet the name of the people was even then sounded *Spēne* = *Hispani*). *scourge* (*escourgee*), *stanch* (*estancher*); *standard* is found in Anglosaxon as well as in Middle-Highdutch *stanthart* (*estandard*); *stage* (*estage*, *estaige*) and others; *slandre* (*esclandre*, Latin *scandalum*), Old-English *esclaundre*. Thus in Old-English *Scariot* was spelt *Iscariot* (CHAUCER). Modern-English has double forms with these sounds, as, *especial* and *special*, *escutcheon* and *scutcheon*, *estate* and *state*, to *estrange* and *strange*, *stranger*, *esquire* and *squire* &c. In the Anglosaxon *sterling* (Medieval-Latin *esterlingus*, *sterlingus*), also *easterling*, Old-English *starling* the vowel of the root-syllable is similarly cast off. The remarkable quinsy arose from squinancy (*esquinancie* mutilated from *synanche*). Before single consonants *e* sometimes, *a* frequently, is cast off: *gypsy* (from Egyptian), *ticket* (diffused even in the 17th century) may come from *étiquette*, but should properly sound *sticket* (Old-French *estiquette*), *mend* (*amender*, *amander*, Latin *amendare*, the simple *mendare* is wanting), *putrenance* (Old-French *aputenance*), *bay* (*abaier*, Modern-French *aboyer*, *ad-baubari*; here the preposition is likewise lost); *van*, *vanguard*, *vantage* (*avant*, *avantage* from *ab-ante*), *vail* (*avaler* from *a val*, to lower), *board* (instead of *abord*, perhaps the French *aborder*), *limbeck* alongside of *alembic* (*alambic*, *alembic*). Frequently treated of by etymologists, *pert* is perhaps naught else but the Old-French *apert* = *ouvert*, public sans feinte. In Old-English it stands exactly in the Old-French sense: *pertliche* for pure pride, and for no point ellis, that is, openly (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 78); How *pertly* afore the peple Reson bigan to preche (ib.); And *pertly* it hentes (Morte Arthure) in HALLIWELL s. v. *perteliche*. *pert* certainly also stands for the Latin *subtilis* = delicate, fine, for instance of a fine lady: He seigh never non so *pert* (ILLUSTRAT. OF FAIRY MYTHOLOGY p. 11). Compare however the Cymric *pert* = fine, spruce, and Gaelic *peirteil* = impudent. The older forms *noy*, *noyance*, *noyous*, *noyful* correspond to the Old-French *anoi*, *anoiance*, *anoiös*, which the

modern tongue has brought back instead of and partly alongside of them: annoy, annoyance &c. Italian has the simple forms: noia, noioso &c.

In Celtic names beginning with *p*, *a* has often fallen off; here belong: Prichard, Pritchard. Price, Penry. Powell, Pugh (also Pye according to LOWER. Engl. Surnames p. 146), which are properly compounds for Ap (ab. uab. mab = filius) Richard. — Rhys, — Henry, — Howell, — Hugh. Thus in proper names generally initial vowels, even obscure ones, often fall off: Livy (Olivia) and the like.

Of Anglosaxon words: lone instead of alone (ealan. English alone, not usual in Anglosaxon) belongs here.

- b) In the middle of a word an unaccented syllable, or one which in English has become unaccented, especially between consonants, is thrown out. The Anglosaxon even, as well as the Old-French, leaned to this rejection; compare Anglosaxon cetil, cetl; cleric, clerc; sēgel, sēgl; fāðemjan. fāðmjan; munec, munc; mōnād, mond; miluc, milc; sadul, sadl &c. English went by degrees much further in this: church (cyrice), adz. adze alongside of addice (adese), mint (mynet), hemp (hanep), own, Old-English owen (āgen), bald, Old-English balled, Buckingham (Buccingahām), Walsingham (Valsingahām), Swanwich and Swanwick (Svanavic), Hachness near Withby (Haconos), hawk (hafuc, hafoc), Berkshire (Bear-rucscir), french (frencisc), scotch alongside of scottish, and many more.

This happens no less in Romance words: chapter, (chapitre), Old-English chapitre; captain (capitaine), able (habile), gentle (gentil) alongside of genteel. Old-English gentile; subtle alongside of subtile; copse alongside of coppice, enmity (enemistiet, Modern-French inimitié), chimney (chimenee, ceminnee), damsel (damisele, but also dancele), Old-English damysele, damycele, fortress (forteresce, but also even fortece), musrol (muserolle), frantic alongside of phrenetic, apartment (appartement), remnant (remanant), Old-English remenant, John, Old-English Johan, comrade (camarade), carbine alongside of carabine, damson, formerly damasyn and damasee (Damas, Damascene), doctress alongside of doctoress &c. Here belongs also sprite, spright alongside of spirit, and chirp instead of cheer up.

The rejection of a vowel before a vowel is rare, save in the blending of two words: trump (trionphe, triumphe); blendings of this sort are the obsolete forms: don, doff, dup, dout (= do on, -off, -up, -out), whence douter = extinguisher.

- c) The final vowel is frequently lost, wherewith the loss of the vowel inflectional terminations is especially connected: end (ende), earth (eorðe), emmet (æmete), milt (milte), yes (gūse), Thames (Tānese), monger (mangere), neif, neaf (Old-norse hnefi, knafi, Danish næve), fall (fealle), bid (bidde), creep (creope), blow (blāve) &c.: pith (piða), creed (crēða), ass (assa), soon (sona, suna), son (sunu); so constantly in the old

substantive termination *ere*: eater (*ētere*), player (*plēgere* &c.; Old-English *rydere*, *ledere*, *flaterere*, *usurere* &c. in Romance words this loss naturally chiefly affects the mute *e* origin (*origine*), sign (*signe*), pain (*paine*), plant (*plante*), branch (*branche*), group (*groupe*) &c. In *envoy*, the accented *e* falls off (*envoyé*). This falling off of vowels especially appear after a short vowel of the accented syllable, or one shortene in English, as well as after long vowels and diphthongs, which become immediately recognizable as such in writing; compar blow, soon, pain.

2) The Omission of Consonants.

- a) At the beginning of a word the single final consonant is seldom omitted. This happens to the nasal *n*, which is else unorganically prefixed to an initial vowel, in *adder* (Anglosaxon *nādre*, *nāddre*, Gothic *nādrs*, Old-English *nedder*, with which we may compare the Lowdutch, Hollandish and Flemish *adde* = snake. The Anglosaxon *ættern* = *venenosus* seems to have naught common with it. *Apron*, for which also *apperon* and formerly *apern* stood, corresponds in form to the Old-French *naperon*.

On the other hand a solitary final **guttural** has often been cast off. In a certain sense *g* is to be reckoned here, although where instead of *gi* or *ge* only *y* or *i* now appears, the softening of the *g*, which first became *y*, into a vowel blended of *or e* (*yi* = *i*, *ye* = *ie* or *i*) explains the casting off of the *g* (*y*). Here belongs the prefix *ge*, which has disappeared in Modern English; and which was rendered by *y* and *i*: *yblent*, *ybreu* (burnt), *yfostered*, *yronnen*, *yqueint* (quenched), *ylik* (Anglosaxon *gelic* = *similis*) and so on. Spenser has still many of these forms; Shakspeare, *yraished*, *yslaked*, *ycleped*, *yclad*, Milton and others, *ycleped*, *yclad*, which an antiquated style still sometimes affects. Here belongs also the form of expression *I wis*, arising from a misunderstanding of the ancient form, but which properly has not the Anglosaxon preterite *visse*, but the Old-English *ywis* (Anglosaxon *gewiss*) for its foundation. Occasionally *e* has remained for *ge*: *enough* (*genôh*), Old-English *yenoughe*, *ynough*, *Halfsaxon* *inow* and others. Instead of the Old-English *zef*, *gif* stands *if* (Anglosaxon *gif*), instead of *Gypes wych* in *ROB. OF GLOUCESTER* now *Ipswich* (Anglosaxon *Gypeswic*); *itch* belongs to the Anglosaxon *gicenness* = *prurigo*; the older collateral form *cearn*, *desiderare*, is *earn* (Anglosaxon *geornjan*). Compare the Old-English *ere* instead of *year*.

A single *h* is often thrown off, even in Anglosaxon words *able*, *ability*, Old-English *hable*, *habilltee*, *ermine* (hermine Medieval-Latin *hermellinus*, -a), *usher*, Old-English *huishe* (Old-French *huissier*, *hussier* and *uissier*, *ussier*), *ombre* (Spanish *hombre*), *allelujah* alongside of *hallelujah*, to *alloo* alongside of *halloo*. In Old-English also *ipocrite*, *ipocrise*, *Ipocras*, *oneste* and the like. In it (Anglosaxon *hit*) the Anglosaxon *h* has been lost; Old-English *hit*, *hyt*; for *welk*

we find the Anglosaxon *hvilc* = *marcidus*, Old-Highdutch *wilhan*, and *ving* is the Anglosaxon *hving* and *ving*. Even Anglosaxon often cast off the foreign *h*-sound, as in *ymen*, *ymn* alongside of *hymn*; *Ercol* (*Hercules*).

The Hebrew guttural *ch* has been cast off in *Enoch* (Hebrew *Chanôch*).

Initial letters in combination with other consonants are sometimes thrown off. Thus *ph* before *th* is occasionally suppressed in pronunciation, as also in writing: *tisic* alongside of *phthisic*, compare *apothegm* alongside of *apophthegm*; *r* before *l* in *lisp* (Anglosaxon *vliap* = *balbus*), Danish *lespe*; and after *s* in *sister* (*sveostor*, *svyster*), Old-English *suster*, Lowdutch *süster*, but compare p. 168. *H* before *n*, *l* and *r* at the beginning of a word has been abandoned: *neck* (*hnecca*), *nap* (*hnäppjan*), *nut* (*hnuta*, *hnut*), *listen* (*hlystan* from *hlosnjan*), *leap* (*hleapan*), *ladle* (*hlädle*), *lot* (*hlot*), *ring* (*hring*), *rime*, *hoarfrost*, to which the French *frimas* belongs (*hrim*), *raven* (*hräfen*). The *k*, otherwise mute before *n*, (Anglosaxon *c*) has been lost in *nap* alongside of *knop*, in Northern-English *nab* (Old-norse *knappr* = *globulus*, compare the Anglosaxon *cnäp* = *jugum*), Old-English *knappe*. *S* before *n* has vanished in *Nottingham* (*Snotingahâm*). Betwixt *s* and *l*, *c* is indeed partly tolerated, as in *sclerotic*, *sclavonian*; yet *c* is mostly thrust out, since only the combination *sl* was familiar to the Anglosaxon organ, (although even the form *sclawen* for *slagen* = *slain* is cited), hence the hybrid form *slice* (Old-French *esclicer*, Substantive *esclice*, from the Old-Highdutch *slizan*, Anglosaxon *slitan*), *slander* (*esclandre*), *sclaundryng* (SKELTON l. 324.), *slave* (*esclave*), as *slavonic*. The *r* omitted after *sp* in *speak* was frequently wanting even in Anglosaxon (*sprican* and *spican*). In proper names usual combinations of consonants have frequently vanished, as, for instance, in *Fanny* (= *Frances*), compare the French *Ferry*, for *Frédéric*.

- b) In the middle of the word (and here we reckon all save the final consonant) consonants are frequently omitted before other consonants, rarely before a vowel, whether consonants stood originally beside each other, or, as is very often the case, clashed with consonants in a derivative syllable or in the composition of words.

Nasal letters have rarely been cast out, as *n* in *eleven* (Anglosaxon *endlif*, Dative *endlifum*, *endlefen*), Old-English *enleven*, *ellene*; *agnail* (Anglosaxon *agnägl*), *nailworm*, *Thursday* (Anglosaxon *punres dæg*, yet Old-norse *pörstdagr*); *vanward* (SHAKESPEARE) instead of *vanward*, *vanguard*. In words originally French, like *covenant*, *covent* (*Coventgarden*) Old-French forms without *n* lie at the root; *covet* and *covetous* come from the Old-French *coveiter*, *coveitous*, although even Old-French sometimes inserts an unorganic *n*, like the Modern-French in *convoiter* (from the Latin *cupidus*).

Among liquid letters, *l* in Anglosaxon words before a primitive guttural is frequently omitted: *each* (*ælc*), Old-English *ilk*,

eche, Dialectic *elcone* = each one (Cumberland), to be distinguished from the Old-English *ilk* = the same, Anglosaxon *ȝlc*; which (*hyȝlic*, *hyȝlc*), Old-English *whilke*; such (*svelic*, *svylc*), Old-English *swilke*, *swiche*; thus too in Old-English there stand *pike*, *pikke* instead of *pilke* (Anglosaxon *pȝlc*); likewise before *s* in *as* (*ealsvā*, *alsvā*), Old-English *als*. Where in Romance words a primitive *l* has been omitted, the Old-French has often thrown it out: *safe* and *save* (Old-French *salf*, *sauf*, and *salver*, *sauver*, *saver*); Old-English also had *savation*, *heraud*, *assaunt*, *auter* and the like, where Modern-English has again taken up the *l*, as in *salvable*, *salvation*, *altar* &c. The Old-English *Wat* (Walter, compare French *Gautier*) is also to be compared (see LOWER p. 127.), and *Gib* (Gilbert = Giselbert) and others. The *r* is seldom lost, for instance in: *cockade* alongside of which also *cockard* is found (see HALLIWELL s. v.) (Old-French *cocart*, *quoquart*, *vain*, Modern-French *cocarde*, from *coq*); and in mutilations of names; like *Bab* (Barbara), *Bat* (Bartholomew), *Mat* (Martha).

Among the **Lipsounds** *p* has been cast out in *corse* alongside of *corpse* (yet even in Old-French *cors*), as in *deceit*, Old-English *decept*. The *b* is lost in *dummy*, *dummerer*, *dumfound* (Anglosaxon *dumb*, and already with lack of *b* in *dumnyss*, in English on the other hand *dumbness*), and in *ames-ace* (SHAKESPEARE) alongside of *ambs-ace*, Old-English *ambes as*. Compare the Old-French *amedoi* alongside of *ambedoi*. The *f* is lacking in *woman* (Anglosaxon *wifmann*, where the Anglosaxon replaced it by assimilation: *wimmann*, *vemmann*), in *had*, *hadst* (*hāfde*, *hāfdest*, *hāfdon*), where the Old-English had *havede*, *hevede* &c. or assimilated *f*: *hadde*, *haddest*, *hadden*; *head*, *behead* (*heāfdjan*, *beheāfdjan*), *lady* (*hlæfdige* = *hlæfveordige*).

We cannot regard the Anglosaxon *v* as cast out in *so*, also (*sva*, *ealsvā*) and *kill* alongside of *quell* (*cveljan*), since here *v* becomes softened into the vowel *u* and coalesces with the following vowel, as in *such* (*svylc*), Old-English *swu*, *kull*. The Romance *v* is cast out in *kerchief* (*couvre-chief*), *curfew* (*couvre-feu*). Compare the Old-English *kevere* = to recover.

Toothsounds have frequently been thrown out; thus *t* before *st*: *best* (*betst*, properly *betest*), compare *3*, *b*; and *betwixt* two *s*: *Essex* (Anglosaxon *Estseaxan*), Old-English *Estsex*; *Wessex* (Anglosaxon *Vestseaxan*), Old-English *Westsex*; *betwixt* a primitive *h* and *th* or *t* (where properly a vowel has been previously cast out): *eighth*, *eighty*, *eighteen* (compare Anglosaxon *eahtōða*, *eahtatig*, *eahtatȳne*). *t* before *r*, followed by another consonant, is also suppressed: *Pernel* (*Petronella*); as well as before *d* in *dandelion* (Old-French *dant* = *dent de lion*). The dental *d* is cast out before *sp* in *gospel* (Anglosaxon *godspell*); before *sw*: *answer* (Anglosaxon *andsvvarjan*, but also *ansvarjan*, *onsvarjan*); in Old-English also before *tr* in *sheltrom*. *sheltrom* (Anglosaxon *scildtruma* = *testudo*) = host, troop of soldiers. *th* before labials after *r* in the word

north is often thrown out, whereas *th* after a vowel, like other dentals, readily assimilates with the consonant after it: Norfolk (Norðfolc), Old-English still Norpfolc, like Soppfolc, Norway, Old-English Norpweye and Norweye, Norwich (Norðvic), but also still in names like Nortwich, Nortwick and Northwich, Northwick; before *m* in Norman, alongside of Northman (Anglosaxon Norðmann and even Normann); but before *h* there ensues the casting out of the initial *h*: Northampton (Norðhamtun), Northumberland (Norðhymbre, Norðanhymbre). *Th* is also omitted before *sh*: worship (Anglosaxon veorðsceipe). *S* is often omitted after another *s* in composition: transept, dispirit; likewise after *r*, in which Latin and Old-French preceded: exile, exert, execute, exult, alongside of exsudation and many more. It has also been cast out before *t* in Exeter. Old-English Excestre and Exetre (Anglosaxon Exan-cester).

Throat-sounds also have often been cast out. A guttural *c* has been lost in drown (compare Anglosaxon druncenjan), likewise one of the threefold *c* (*k*) in neckerchief (that is neck-kerchief). The guttural *g* has been partly weakened into a vowel, as the doctrine of vowels demonstrates, and cannot therefore, in such a vocal resolution, be regarded as merely cast out. The case also in which the *g* which has arisen through the French transposition of an *i* or *e* is lost through a fresh transposition in English, cannot be referred here, as in Gascony = Gascogne (Vasconia), Burgundy = Bourgogne (Burgundia). *G* is however, perhaps to be regarded as cast out where either a primitive *g* stood before another consonant in French, or where a *g*, arising through the transposition of an *i* or *e* in French, was preserved in Old-English. In many cases Old-French certainly took the lead in the omitting of the *g*. Thus *g* is to be regarded as cast out in disdain (desdaigner), Spain (Espagne), Old-English Spaigne; Britain (Bretagne), Old-English Breitaine; mountain (montaigne, but also mountaine), Old-English mountaigne; company (compeignie, but also cumpainie), Old-English compaignye, compaignie; joignant (joignant), Old-English joignant; Cluny (Clugny); castanet (castagnette), purloin (purloigner); Modern-English retains the *g*, although it is silent, in many forms, as reign, impregn, sign, expugn and others. Forms with and without *g* also sometimes stand alongside of each other: eloin, eloine and eloigne (esloignier). In the Celtic word Craven, *g* is cast out before *r*, Cymric craigvan = district of rocks. In Anglosaxon words *g* (at all events before *i*) has been cast out after a primitive *s* (*c*) in icicle (isgicel), as well as between *n* and *t* in lent (lengten, also lencten). To too the Anglosaxon *h* before *t*, else rendered by *gh*, has been cast out in trout (truht, Latin tructa) and wet (which likewise answers to the Anglosaxon veaht as væt), not, alongside of nought, nauht, Old-English noȝt, as in the compound after *mb* in: Lambeth instead of Lambhithe, compare Greenhithe (from the An-

- glosaxon *hyð* = portus), and after *rw* in: narwal alongside of narwhale (Anglosaxon *nar* = nas (nasu?) and *hvāl* = balaena).
- c) At the end of a word especially nasal sounds have been thrown off; *m* in *fro* (Anglosaxon *fram*, from); especially frequently *n*, for instance after *m*, although a final *mn* seem otherwise reconcilable (compare condemn, damn, automn, column), where *n* is now silent: stem (Anglosaxon *stāfn*, stefn, stemn) and in the verb to stem (stemnan), compare the Anglosaxon *væmn* alongside of *væpon*, *emn* alongside of *efen*, *hremn* alongside of *hræfen*, where English has abandoned the contracted forms; after *s*: dross (drosn = faex); after *l*: ell (eln, aln, whence elbow, where even in Anglosaxon *elnboga* also occurs alongside of *elboga*); more frequently after vowels: eve alongside of even (*æfen*), game (*gamen*), a = an (*ân*), no = none (*nân*), Old-English non; ago (from the participle *gân* = gangen), go (Infinitive *gân*), do (*dôn*), cleave (*cleôfan*), choose (*ceôsan*) and so in all similar inflectional forms; above (*bûfan*), afore, before (*onforan*, *beforan*), where the Old-English still alongside retained *n*. Here belongs also the preposition *a* for *on* in compounds, where even the Anglosaxon offered *ā*, *ô*, alongside of *on*, *an*. Thus Old-English has *me*, instead of *men* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *tho* instead of *than*, and others.

The lipsound *b* is sometimes thrown off in Old-English after *m* (although often added) in *lam*, *dum* and other words, in which *b* now regularly reappears

Among toothsounds a final *t* is sometimes thrown off: Benedict alongside of Benedict, anvil (Anglosaxon *anfitl*), Old-English *anvelt*; in Romance words, in which *t* often rests upon a primitive *d*, this occurs, according to the Old-French precedent, in Old-English in *secre* (*secreit*, *secroi*), now again *secret*; in Modern-English *decree* (*decret*), *degree* (*degret*, *degre*, Modern-French *degré*); *plea*, along with the verb *plead* (Old-French *plait*, *plaid*), Old-English *pleid*, *plead*; with this is connected the omission of the *d* in the ancient *see* (Old-French *sed*, *siez*, *se*); *petty*, along with which *petit* was formerly found, is the Old-French *petit*. Compare the Old-English a *petit* thing (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 287.).

D also is cast off; often after *n*: *tine* (Anglosaxon *tind*, Old-Highdutch *zinka*), *woodbine* (Anglosaxon *vudubend*, -bind = *hedera nigra*), similarly in *scan* (Latin *scandere*); on the other hand in *summon* not the Old-French form with a *d* inserted: *semondre*, but *semoner*, also occurring, may lie at the root. Before a vowel too a final *d* has been lost: *Davy* (*David*). The *s*, silent in the corresponding French words, is often lacking in the English ones: *pea* (*pois*, *peis*, compare the Anglosaxon *pisa*, Latin *pisum*), *relay* (*relais*, or is the French *relayer*, substantive *relais*, descended from the English?), *hero* (*heros*), *hautboy* (*hautbois*). Thus also *anana* stands alongside of *ananas*. In the word *riddle* the Anglosaxon *s* (*rædels*, compare the Middle-Highdutch *rætsal*, -el) is also lacking.

Final gutturals often disappear; especially *g* after *i*, with

which the softened guttural may seem to have coalesced: *any* (*ænig*, *ânig*), *many* (*maneg*, *manig*), *body* (*bodig*), *ivy* (*ifig*), *penny* (*pending*, *pening*, *penig*), *dizzy* (*dysig*), *mighty* (*mih-tig*) &c.; so too in *Chelsea* (*Ceólesig*). Besides that, a final *g*, with a vowel preceding it, has yielded directly to *y* and *w*. See **vowels**. This is likewise the case with *c*: *I* (*ic* = *ego*), Old-English *ich*; *every* (= *ever each*, *Anglosaxon* *æfre ælc*), Old-English *everych*; particularly in adjectives compounded of the *Anglosaxon* *lic*: *daily* (*dæglic*), *fleshly* (*flæselic*) &c., where Old-English always had the forms with a final *ch*: *manlich*, *baldelich*, *wyslych*, *lordlich* &c. The word *cony*, which is to be referred to the Latin *cuniculus* (Old-French *conil*, *conin*), sounds in Old-English *conyge*, *conig*. Even the final *Anglosaxon* *h* (else replaced by *gh* or otherwise) is sometimes not preserved: *fee* (*feóh*), *shy* (*sceóh*), *seal* (*scolh*), but also with the *h* rejected: *sēol*, *siol*, *syl*), *mare* = *equa* (*mearh* = *equus*, *merihe*, but also *mere*, *myre* = *equa*).

The abandonment of a primitive reduplication of consonants in the middle and the end of a word deserves particular mention, but especially that at the end, in which we of course abstract from the reduplication, of a consonant originally single, which first arose in the English tongue. The English restricted the reduplication in the first instance, as was natural, to syllables with a short or a shortened vowel.

- 1) With the **Lengthening of the Vowel**, therefore, a consonant originally double is, regularly, changed into a simple one, both in *Anglosaxon* and in *Romance* words; hence: *dare* (*Anglosaxon* *dearr*, *dear*), *stars* (*steorra*), *brawl* (Old-English *brallen*); *date* formerly *datte*, *tailor* (*tailleur*); in words like *flame*, *grate* and others the Old-French fluctuated between *flame* and *flamme*, *grater* and *gratter* &c. *Fallen* and others with *ll*, *warrior* (*guerrier*) and the like, form exceptions.
- 2) The reduplication is especially retained in the accented syllable which is not final. Reduplications after it are exceptionally permitted, like the reduplications of *l* in *Romance* words, which, like other reduplications which are not primitive, take place in an inflective termination, as *counselled*, *travelling*, *quarrellest* (from *conseller*, *conseiller* and so forth); although this is censured by grammarians; whereas, by universal consent, the derivative syllables *ess* and *niss* always end with a doubled consonant: *countess* (Old-French *contesse*, *cuntesse*); *sickness* (*Anglosaxon* *seócness*). But before the accented syllable the maintenance of the double sound is fluctuating, although mostly retained, as in *essoin* (Old-French *essoine*), *allow* (*allouer*), *annex*, *accost*, *collect*, *commence* &c.; on the other hand upon (*Anglosaxon* *uppou*, *uppan*).
- 3) In the simple rootsyllable the primitive double sound is hardly ever preserved, except where *l*, *s*, *c* (English as *ck* and *tch*) and *g* (*Anglosaxon* *cg*, English *dge*) originally appeared doubled; hence: *hill* (*Anglosaxon* *hill*), *still* (*Anglosaxon* *stille*), *gall* (*Anglosaxon* *gealla*), *cress* (*Anglosaxon* *crésse*), *mass* (*másse*),

truss (Old-French *trosser*, *trusser*), bless (Anglosaxon *blæssan*), stick (Anglosaxon *sticca*), thick (*picce*), flock (*flocc*), bitch (*bicce*), thatch (*peccan*), bridge (*brycg*, *bricg*), fledge flyge). Other reduplications are here exceptionally preserved, as *mm*: *mumm* (Highdutch *mummen*, *vermummen*); *nn*: *inn* (Anglosaxon *inne*, *inn*); *rr*: *err* (Old-French *errer*, *oirrer*), *serr* (*serrer*), *purr* also *pur* (Highdutch *purren*, *purr machen*); *bb*: *ebb* (Anglosaxon *ebba*); *tt*: *butt* (Anglosaxon *bytt*), *smitt* (Highdutch *schmitz*, *schmitze*); *dd*: *add* (Latin *addere*).

On the other hand one of the consonants is commonly lost here: *grim* (Anglosaxon *grimm*), *ram* (*ramm*), *hen* (*henn*), *sin* (*svnn*), *lip* (*lippa*), *trap* (*treppe*), *cup* (*cupp*), *crib* (*cribb*), *web* (*vebb*), *net* (*nett*, also *nete*), *bid* (*biddan*), *shed* (*scedan*), *wed* (*veddjan*). Even the *ll* commonly preserved in short and long syllables does not always appear in the accented syllable: *wool* (Anglosaxon *vull*), *patrol* (French *patrouiller*). When the full (Anglosaxon *full*) with a double *l*, appears without the accent, before or after the accented syllable, it assumes the single *l*; the former in the Anglosaxon fashion; the later contrary to the Anglosaxon usage: *fulfil* (*fulfillan*); *baleful* (Anglosaxon *bealufull*).

If the word is compound, the double consonant is frequently not given to the accented verbal root in *ll*, as in *fulfil*, *compel*, whereas the double consonant is uniformly afforded to others, such as those in *ss*: *caress* (*caresser*), *endoss* (*endosser*). But grammarians disagree upon the former case. In inflective forms, which are added syllabically, the double consonant is given to the root syllable.

3) The omission of vowels and consonants.

- a) At the commencement of the word the omission of a consonant with a vowel after it, or of a vowel with a consonant after it, is not uncommon, whereas the omission of a syllable beginning or ending in a consonant is rare. The loss at the commencement is frequently naught else than the casting off of a particle which, although originally necessary to the determination of the notion, was afterwards, through the absence of accent, no longer conceived in its specific import.

Consonant and vowel are cast off in: *story* alongside of *history* (compare here however the Old-French *histoire*, *estoire* and Anglosaxon *stør*, Old-Highdutch *stôrja*, that is *historia*), *spaniel* (from Hispaniolus, compare French *épagneul*), *spital*, *spittle* (Old-French *hospital*, *ospital*), *spite* (Old-French *despit*, compare Hollandish *spyt*), *spence* = *pantry* (Old-French *despense*), *sdain*, *sdeign* in *Spenser* (Old-French *desdeignier*), *sport* (*desport*), to which also the forms *fend*, *fender*, *fence* are to be reckoned (Old-French *defendre*, *desfendre*; *defenderes*; *defensi*); in *reeve*, Old-English *reve*, to which *sheriff*, Old-English *shereve*, belongs, the Anglosaxon prefix *ge*, which seems to have always been peculiar to the substantive, has been cast off (Anglosaxon *gerêfa*, *sciregerêfa*, *scirgerêfa*). In *dropsy*,

dropsical even the essential element of the word has been lost (from the Greek ῥεγωῖς and ῥεγωῖς). In proper names abbreviations like Beck, Becky (Rebecca) &c. are less striking.

Still more frequent is the case that the syllable beginning with a vowel, even here mostly a primitive prefix, is cast off: rack alongside of arrack, prentice alongside of apprentice, Old-English prentis; sample (Old-French essample, example), soar (French essorer, Old-Provençal eisaurar), swage suage alongside of assuage (Old-French assoager, asuager, from the Latin suavis). In Old-French the reduplication of the consonant arising from assimilation was often omitted, as in the last instance; so that in some cases in English only the casting off of a vowel (see above) could be assumed. The syllable *en* is found thrown off in cense, censer, alongside of incense (Old-French encens, encenser, encensier = encensoir), Old-English censeng, censer; gin alongside of engine (Old-French engin, yet even the adjective gignos), Old-English gyn, gin; cyclopedia and cyclopædia alongside of encyclopædia; in common life we say peach instead of impeach (Old-French empescher = déferer en justice). Still more striking is cern in Shakspeare for concern. Mutilations, such as Mun instead of Edmund, often occur in proper names, even with the rejection of several syllables, compare Betty, Betsy — Elizabeth, where we must observe the class of names beginning with *T*, in which the initial consonant is the remnant of a *atte* (at the) prefixed, as in Try (*atte* rye = shore), Tooke (*atte* hooke), Twell (*atte* well), Thill (*atte* hill); as in some beginning with *n* the consonant is a remnant of *atten* (at then, Anglosaxon *āt* pam, the Dative of *se*, *pē*, or with *n* to avoid the hiatus): Noakes (*atten* oak), which is commonly named along with Style (compare Simone *atte* Style [PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 89.]). — Drake has also been shortened by an essential element (compare Old-English *andriki*, Old-Highdutch *antrecho*, Swedish *andrake*), wig is shortened from *peruke*, *periwig*; zounds arose from God's wounds!

- b) In the middle of the word, with the expulsion of an unaccented vowel the consonant preceding it is also frequently cast out, because the organic combination of the now clashing consonants is not possible, or is inconvenient, in which the case may arrive that two like consonants meet and stand before or after a third: England (Anglosaxon *Englaland*), Old-English *Englelonde*; else (*elles*), Berkshire (Anglosaxon *Bearrucscir*, yet *Bearucscir* is also cited); nurture (Old-French *norriture*, yet also, with neglected assimilation of the *t*, from *nutrire*, *noriture*), noisome (instead of *noisesome*); or two and mostly three other consonants would clash: either (Anglosaxon *æghræðer*, yet also *ægðer*), hast (Anglosaxon *hafast*), lakin, laken instead of *ladikin*, made (Anglosaxon *macode*). Old-English also *mase*, *tase* (= *makes*, *takes*); mart (= *market*, Old-norse *markadr*), lark (*lâcerce*), Old-English and Scottish *laverock*; last (adverb *latst*, from *late* = *tarde*, *sero*, the adjective *lâtemest*), Ralph (Old-High-

dutch *Rātulf*), lord (*hlāford*), Old-English *loverd* alongside of *lavedi* (*DAME SIRIZ*), lobster (*loppestre*, yet also *lopestre*, *lopystre*), whirlwind (Old-norse *hvirflvindr*), sennight (*seofonniht*, in Thorpe *seofeniht*), Cambridge, Old-English *Cantebrigge*; since, Old-English *sythenes*, *sithence* (from Anglosaxon *siðþan*); or and nor are contractions from *ādor*, *nādor*, themselves standing for the fuller forms *āhvāðer*, *nāhvāðer*. In Romance and other words this omission is no less usual: palsy (Greek-Latin *paralysis*), fancy stands for the older *fantasy*; sexton for *sacristan*, sacrist (from the Medieval-Latin *sacrista[nus]*, Middle-Highdutch *sigriste*); garment (Old-French *garment*, *garnement*), cantonment (French *cantonnement*) and others, although with many words of this sort the derivative forms are to be regarded as already grown out of an English shortened root.

Where *g* is softened or, if you will, cast off after a vowel, the following vowel also disappears: nine (*nigon*), tile (*tigul*), as, before a preserved obscure vowel, it secedes with the preceding one: rule (*regul*, *rēgol*, Old-French *reule*).

No less frequent is the case that, with a vowel, the following consonant disappears: Axminster (*Axanminster*), Oxford (*Oxenforde*), Newark, Old-English *Newework* (*ROB. OF GLOUCESTER*), Repton (Anglosaxon *Hreopandūn*), Bedford (*Bēdanford*), Windsor (*Windlesore*, Old-English metathetically *Windelsore* [*ROB. OF GLOUCESTER*]), Tamworth (*Tamanveorðige*), Dartmouth (*Darentamuð*), fourtnight instead of *fourteen*-night, cuckold, Old-English *cokewold*, monday (*mōnan dāg*), sunday (*sunnandāy*) &c., Old-English still *monenday*, *sonnenday* &c. (*ROB. OF GLOUCESTER*); — almyr alongside of *almorny* (from the Old-French *almosne*, Anglosaxon *almāsse*), parrot (French *perroquet*, Italian *parrocchetto*?), damson instead of *damascene*, sarplier (*serpilliere*), ginger (Old-English *gingiber*, *gingefere*, French *gingembre*, Latin *zingiber*), Old-English *comsen* (Old-French *comencer*) and others.

The expulsion of vowels before and after a consonant, as well as that of consonants at once before and after a vowel, whereby the rejection affects either two syllables partly or one entire close syllable beginning with a consonant is rare. The former is found in *proctor* = *procurator*, *proxy* = *procuracy*; the second in *Rochester* (*Hrôfesceastre*), Boston in Lincolnshire, Old-English *Botolfstōn* (*DAME SIRIZ* p. 4); Lincoln was in Latin *Lindum colonia*; in Anglosaxon *Lindisege* = *Lindsey* in Lincolnshire is found. Funnel, is by Johnson derived from Latin *infundibulum*, but the Cymric *ffynel*, a chimney is herhaps to be referred to it, as Dieffenbach asserts.

- c) The casting off of a vowel and consonant is particularly of importance at the end of words, and concerns chiefly the derivative and inflective terminations. Apart from the mutilations of words at the end, here after to be mentioned, we will only generally notice the loss of the nominal and verbal terminations in *an*, *en*, *ēn*, *un*, *on*, *um* and *að*, of which we shall speak in

the Doctrine of Forus, and which have been followed by the corresponding Romance and Latin terminations *ir. er. ar, oir, re.* as well as *ire, ere, ere, are, us, um* and so on. Yet we will particularly mention some nominal forms and particles, as well as the infinitives of verbs.

Many nouns, namely, lose in their English form the derivational termination; thus the termination *en* is lost, especially in Anglosaxon words: mill (Anglosaxon mylen). Old-English mylene, miln. whence milner= miller; lent (Anglosaxon lengten, lencten). Old-English lenten. lent, whence the form leuten is now treated as an adjective; handsel (Anglosaxon handselen = traditio). kindred (compounded with ræden, not the adjective ræd); thus *en* has also been cast off in morrow (Anglosaxon morgēn) and the like. Moreover, other full endings of nouns than those with *n* in Anglosaxon words, are not readily lost, besides that in (*i*)*ge*: toad (tādje, tādige). harbour (hereberge). Old-English herberwe, Tamworth (Tamanveorðige); as well as sometimes in *ra*: gear (Anglosaxon gearva), compare Anglosaxon gearvjan and girjan). pea (pāva), formerly however po and others under the influence of *v*. In words like hag (Anglosaxon hūgtys, hāges) a shorter form lies at the root, as here, the Old-norse hagr=sapiens.

Romance nouns which had mostly cast off their primitive terminations even in French, as well as Latin ones, suffer less mutilation in their derivational than in the inflectional terminations (the nominative being computed as such; compare forms like pulpit, margin, maul, mall (Old-French maules, Latin malleus) &c. The habit of rejecting the inflection *an, en* &c., which in Anglosaxon nouns has also sometimes seized the derivational syllable (see above), seems also to occasion the loss of the *n*-termination in other nouns; compare rosemary, Old-English rosemaryne, filigree alongside of filigrane. Abbreviations like ink rest upon the Old-French precedent (*enche, enque, Modern-French encre*). The rejection of the terminations *te* and *se* after *t* and *s* rests properly on the simplifying of consonants, as in bandle (bandelette), omelet (omelette), riches (richesse), Old-English richesse, with which is also joined alms (Anglosaxon ālmāsse).

In Particles *an* has often been cast off: but (Anglosaxon būtan) alongside of out, Anglosaxon ūt; within, without (*viðinnan, viðūtan*), Old-English frequently withouten, withowten; about, Old-English abouten; beneath (*beneoðan, benioðan*, Lowdutch [be]nēden) and others; so too *um* in between (*betveonum*), limbmeal (*limmælum*) and others.

As regards the infinitive termination, it is particularly to be noticed, because the infinitive in the English verb is at present to be regarded as the root form (of the weak verb) and hence any elements of primitive inflection preserved in it pass into the other verbal forms (compare render — rendered, rendering). All English verbs, with the exception of the preserved Anglosaxon verbs, conform to the weak form of con-

jugation, and formerly assumed besides other inflectional forms, also assumed that of the infinitive in *en*, which has at present been cast off, and is exceptionally preserved, partly out of mere orthoëpic principles. as a last remnant, in the mute *e*. Derivational terminations before the infinitive termination are of course preserved, and the infinitive termination still occurring at present *n*, *en*, *on* is such a derivational termination, belonging also to imitated verbs: rain (*rig-n-an*), even (*ēf-en-jan*, *emujan*), reckon (*rec-n-an*, *recujan*). The terminations *an*, *jan* have disappeared: wind (*vindan*), melt (*meltan*), shrink (*scrincan*), whisper (*hvisprjan*) &c. The preserved *e* is found after a long or lengthened vowel: tease (*tæsan*), freeze (*freó-san*), shake (*scacan*), writhe (*vriðan*); also in forms with a rejected *g*, as lie (*licjan*), die or dye (*deágjan*); and even after a preserved short vowel: give (*gifan*) and after a syllable long by position: wrinkle (*vrincljan*), waddle (*vādljan*), cleanse (*clænsjan*).

In Old-English the terminations *en* (*n*) follow each other as of course, and often run alongside of another: finden, wenden, tellen, riden, plaëien, helpen, as sayn, han, don, gon, and finde, wende, telle, ride &c., playe &c., with which is connected the complete extinction of *en* in many verbs.

Romance and Latin infinitives replace in Old-English their primitive terminations by the same terminations belonging originally to Anglosaxon, hence forms like quiten, plesen (Old-French plaisir), escapen, reneyen (*renier*, *renoier*, *reneier*), feynen (*feindre*, *faindre*, in these and similar verbs with rejection of the inserted *d*) suffren, enforcen &c., which likewise underwent the abbreviations quite, plesse, escape, reneye &c., and still in part preserve the *e* in Modern-English. Where here an *r* appears at the end of a word, it mostly belongs to the root, not to the primitive termination, as in suffer, proffer, compare the Old-English suffren, profren; cover, flower, sever (with an *e* inserted before the *r* of the root), compare Old-French covrir, florir, flurir, sever, but also severer; appear (Old-French aparoir, aparer) and others.

On the other hand some forms remain, in which the *r* belonged indeed to the infinitive termination, as render (Old-French rendre, perhaps to distinguish it from rend, Anglosaxon hrendan, to tear), barter, whence the substantive barterer alongside of barrator (Old-French barater, bareter), with which in the TOWNELEY MYSTER. p. 165. the old Substantive barett = vexation (Old-French barat, barete) is found, so that we may comprehend the verb as a denominative from the Old-French: barateres; batter reminds us strongly of the Old-French batre, battre, Latin batuere, although we might impute to the *er* an intensive or frequentative signification, as embroider does of the French broder (Swedish brodera, Danish brodere), although here at the same time we may think of the substantive border; flatter answers to the Old-French flater, although it might be taken to be a denominative from the substantive flateres.

cashier as a verb in the meaning of **dismiss** is also striking, (casser, quasser) and domineer (dominer). That the infinitive termination did not remain wholly disregarded other substantives seem also to indicate, as supper (souper) and the still more striking remainder (remaindre), corresponding in form with surrender, used both as a verb and as a substantive, and with which we cannot think of a transfer of the Anglosaxon derivation *er*, *or*, *ur*.

Mutilations of words in their final syllables, not cast off by a complete or at least a more general analogy, occur in the more glib every-day speech, and have partly penetrated into writing, particularly where they imitate the language of common life. Proper names here again take the first place; thus Privet, the name of a place, is shortened from the Anglosaxon *Prýfetes flôd*, *Prúntesflôd*; hence the monosyllabic *Nat* (*Nathaniel*), *Wat* (*Walter*), *Bill* (*William*), *Meg* (*Margaret*), *Tib* (*Tibald*), *Tid* (*Theodor*), *Tim* (*Timothy*), *Tom* (*Thomas*), *Dan* (*Daniel*), *Deb* (*Deborah*), *Sam* (*Samuel*), *Sib* (*Sebastian*), *Su* (*Susan*), *Ciss* (*Cecily*), *Zach* (*Zachary*), *Gib* (*Gilbert*), *Chris*, *Kit* (*Christian*) and others, which are again lengthened by *y*, like *Timmy*, *Tibby*, *Tommy*, *Debby*, *Suky* (*Susan*), *Conny* (*Constance*), which receives the character of a diminutive termination; *cherry*, for the Anglosaxon *cirse*, Old-High-dutch *kirsa*, may be thus explained, unless we go back to the French *cerise*. Similar are abbreviations like the *pro* and *con* (= *contra*), *incog* (= *incognito*), *hyp* and *to hyp* = *hypocondria*, and to depress with melancholy; *Cantab* is an abbreviation from *Cantabrigian*; *cit* is used contemptuously for citizen and forms thence the feminine form *citess*; *sentinel* is shortened into *sentry*. *Cond* is quoted as a nautical expression for to conduct, it is by *HALLIWELL* erroneously ascribed to *CHAUCEER*. *Consols*; has been formed on the Exchange from consolidated annuities. *Chum*, Chamber companion and table- and -bed-fellow still in many dialects, is made to spring from *comrade*; as well at least might it arise from the Anglosaxon *cuma* = *hospes*, we must then rather think of chamber-fellow. Much of this kind remains of course of doubtful origin.

B) Amplification of the Word.

The adding on of vowels and consonants, insignificant for the notion of the word, is in part more extensive in Old- than in Modern-English, in part more widely spread in Modern than in Old-English. The amplification of the word in Modern-English mostly concerns the insertion of vowels, and is founded in great part upon other rejections.

1) Adding on of Vowels.

- a) **At the beginning** of the word an insignificant vowel is hardly ever prefixed in English. Prefixed vowels are only significant prefixes, although their signification may in course of time have been partly weakened. Here belongs also the *a*, occurring still

more frequently in Old-English, which is to be regarded as a preposition. The use of *e* before *sp*, *st*, *sc* and so forth, in some words, also appearing without this *e*, as in *espouse*, *estate*, *escape*, belongs to Old-French.

- b) In the middle of the word a vowel is often inserted in an unaccented syllable. This happens especially between consonants, the last of which is a liquid or nasal letter, and which in Anglosaxon or Old-French stand beside each other without a vowel communication. Before *r* an *e* here appears: *whisper* (Anglosaxon *hvisprjan*), *murder* (Anglosaxon *myrðrjan*), *temper* (Anglosaxon *temprjan*), *bolster* (Old-norse *bólstr*, Old-Highdutch *polster*), *holster* (Old-norse *hulstr* = *theca*); since certainly even Anglosaxon in general in denominatives of this sort offered this suffix *er*, (Old-Highdutch *ar*) and not a single *r*; compare *hinderjan*, *slumerjan* &c. The same happens in Romance words, from the same phonetic reason, with which however we must not reckon those instances in which a succeeding, now mute *e* is set by methathesis before the last consonant; for instance, *proper*, French *propre*. Here belong however: *enter* (*entrer*), *cover* (*covrir*), *recover* (*recouvrer* = *recuperare*), Old-English *keveren*; *sever* (commonly *sevrer*, but also *severer*, as in the adjective *several*, still sounding thus in English), *deliver*, *deliverance* (*delivrer*, *delivrance*), *livery* (*livree*, Medieval-Latin *livreia*, sec. XIV also *liberata*, clothes delivered &c., according to ZEUSS *Gr. celt.* I, 128 of Celtic origin; Armorican *luifre*, a party coloured coat, from *lui*, colour) and others.

After a letter, not however a liquid, which in Anglosaxon might be immediately followed by *m* or *n*, *e* or *o* has been inserted. In words of this sort the Anglosaxon had also regularly the vowels *e*, *o* or *u*; before *m*, *o* commonly stands (Old-Highdutch *am*, *um*): *besom* (*bēsmā*), *bottom* (*botm*), *blossom* (substantive *blōstma*, *blōsma*, verb *blōstmjan*, *blōsmjan*); compare Anglosaxon *bōsum* and *bōsm*. Old-English here offered also *botme*, *blosme*, *fadme* (*fathom*) &c.

Before *n*, *e* and *o*, as in Anglosaxon *e* or *o* before *n* (Old-Highdutch *an*) are here also met with: *hearken* (*hērcnjan*, *hȳrcnjan*), *glisten* (*glisnjan*), *reckon* (*recnjan*, *recnan*), Old-English *rekenen*; *beckon* and *beacon*, with different meaning, both Anglosaxon *beācnjan*, *bēcnjan*, (belonging to the substantive *beācen*, *beācn*), Old-English *becken*. The more ancient language (in SPENSER) had *steven*, the voice (*stēfn*, *stemn*) and even *stevyn*, as the dialects still have *stoven*, *stovven* = *stump*, *stub* (*stofn*), in Leicestershire *stovin*.

A *u* is inserted before *m* in the Romance word *alarum*, also *larum*, alongside of *alarm* (*alarme*, Walloon *larmē*), compare; Did he beat a *larum*? (HALLIWELL s. v. *larum*).

Before vowels we find *i*, *y* inserted in the substantive suffix *i-er*, the *i* or *y* of which comes after *aw*, *ow*, *t*, *th*, *z*, perhaps also after *ll*, and although chiefly subservient to a phonetic

lightening, may rest upon the French *ier*, which indeed frequently appears in English as *er* with a suppressed *i*; compare lawyer, sawyer (otherwise sawer), bowyer; courtier (court), clothier (cloth), hosier (hose), brazier (brass), glazier (glass), collier (coal).

The apparently inserted *i* before *a* and *o* in parliament (parlement), amerciam^{nt} alongside of amercement; savior, saviour is to be ascribed to Old-French forms like *parlieries*, *parlior*; *mercier*, *merciab^{le}*; *savcor*, *saveeur*.

The striking *i* in the compounds handiwork, handicraft, also spelt with a *y*: handystroke, handyblow, comes as little from the adjective handy (Anglosaxon *gehende* = promptus, Old-English *hende*, *hendi*) as the *i* is a euphonic connecting vowel. Instead of the Anglosaxon forms *handveorc*, *handcræft*, *handgeveorc*, like *handgevrit*, and the like, have become the standard therefor (compare the Anglosaxon *gecræft* along with *cræft* = facultas, ars), which has been mistaken in modern times, when words of this sort are regarded as compounds of handy.

Insertions of *e*, as in rosemary (rosmarinus) rest on a confusion of roots.

The *o* before a mute *w* in Modern-English also deserves mention, and which may be regarded as inserted. The combination of *ow* has been cited above among the English vowels; *w* was properly in words of Anglosaxon origin in Old-English a consonant, taking the place of the Anglosaxon *r* (*u*), *g* and *h*, themselves frequently interchanging among each other. In Anglosaxon they were either preceded by a vowel, to be justified etymologically (compare *vealovjan*, *valvjan*, Gothic *valugjan*, Old-Highdutch *walagon*, English *wallow*), and this was partly wanting. Old-English primarily, where it did not substitute *gh* for the consonants (*g*, *h*) (as in *borgh* = *borga*, *fidejussor*), made *re* with an *e* after it enter as the substitute of that consonant. Hence the forms *falwe* (adjective *fealu*, *fealo* = *fealav*, verb *fealvjan*), *narwe* (*nearu*, *nearo* = *nearv*), *sparwe* (*spearva*, *spearu*), *pilwebere* (Anglosaxon *pyle*, compare the Latin *pulvinus*. Hollandish *peuluw* and Lowdutch *küssen-büre*), *morwe*, *morwening* (*morgen*, *morn*, Old-Highdutch *morgan*), *sorwe* (*sorg*, *sorh*), *herberwe* (*hereberge*), *arwe* (*earh* and *areve*). They were soon represented also by the rejection of the *e* and insertion of the *o*, which was occasioned by the *re*: *fallow*, *narrow*, *sparrow*, *pillow*, *morrow*, *sorrow*, *arrow*; so that now a light Anglosaxon vowel preceding the original consonant even seems replaced by *o*: *willow* (*vilig*, *velig*), *sallow* (*salig*, *sealh*, *seal*, Old-Highdutch *salaha*) &c.

- c) In general the final sound of words in respect of their vocalization is found encumbered; the *e* alone is frequently found as an inorganic addition. It has been already said (see p. 155), how the *e*, at present mute, especially after a consonant with a preceding single vowel, continues as a sign of the lengthening of the syllable, but also partly where no lengthening takes place. We deem this inorganic *e* occasioned by the habit of

making an organic vowel, for which *e* is substituted, sound after long as well as short syllables. There is no doubt that the now mute *e* was still audible in the fourteenth century, and perhaps no more suppressed in pronunciation, than the final *e* now is in many words in Modern-Highdutch. It often has the full measure in verse in Chaucer. Compare CHAUCER ed. TH. WRIGHT: Whan that Aprille with his schowres swoote (PROL. 1); A cook thei hadde with them for the nones (IB. 381); Ther was non such from Hulle to Cartage (IB. 406); They seyde that it were a charité (THE KNIGHTS TALE 1435); The gayler sleep, he mighte nought awake, (IB. 1476) and so forth, and in the frequent endings of a verse with *e* we may perhaps see jingling or trochaic rhymes, as in:

For certeynly I drede such sentence
Though thay not pleynty speke in my audience.
(THE CLERKES TALE 8512.)

I have not had no part of children twayne,
But first syknes, and after wo and payne. (IB. 8526)

For that jingling rhymes are not foreign to Chaucer is shown by passages like:

His palfray was as broun as eny berye
A Frere ther was, a wantoun and a merye. (PROL. 207).

Nought oonly he, but al his contré, merye
Was for this child, and God thay thank and herie.
(THE CLERKES TALE 8491.)

As we must also necessarily recognize these rhyme endings in verses like the following:

What thing is it that wommen most desiren:
Be war and keep thy nek-bon fro the iren.
(THE WYF OF BATHES TALE 6487.)

Some sayden owre herte is most i-eased
Whan we ben y-flaterid and y-preised. (IB. 6511.)

An inorganic *e* is frequently found in Old-English, where they have been long abandoned, as in the verbal forms in *eth*: makethe, rennethe, sterethe, turnethe, holdethe, gothe, dothe &c., and in the suffix *ing*: gevinge, forgetinge, comynge &c.; the suffix *ness*: rechelessnesse, perfitnesse &c.; after long and short syllables of all parts of speech in words originally Anglosaxon and Romance, as merke = darkness (Anglosaxon myrc), nede (neád), yere (geár), derke (dearc), glasse (gläs), flesshe (flæsc), bridde (bridd), sike (sióc), sixe (six, seox), everyche (from ælc), selde (seld), offe (of) &c.; awtere (Old-French alter, alteir), raunsone (raançon), resowne (reson), metalle (metal), generale (general), secunde (secunt, secont) &c.; whereas some, now abandoned, rest upon Old-French forms, like defaute, now default.

Numerous mute *e* of this sort still appear in the sixteenth century. They are essentially reduced since the middle of the sixteenth century, but many are still at present preserved, although the mute *e* has now become essentially an orthoepic, conventional mark, whose employment has in general no definite purpose. But the preservation of the inorganic *e* after an originally short, now also short syllable, is striking, as in the preterite of strong verbs, as *bāde* (Anglosaxon *bād*), *sāte* alongside of *sat* (*sāt*), *āte* alongside of *eat* (*āt*); and after syllables now shortened, as one (*ân*), none; after diphthongs, as in mouse (*mûs*), louse (*lûs*), house (*hûs*); and long vowels, which may pass as such by themselves, as in goose, geese (*gôs*, *gês*) and the like; or after double consonants, for instance worse (*viŕs*, *vyrs*), compare corpse and corse (Old-French *cors*, *corps*).

2) Adding on of Consonants.

- a) To the initial sound of the word, and that mostly the vowel, an insignificant consonant is often prefixed. The first place is here taken by the Nasal *n*, which in substantives is always falsely derived from the originally preceding article *an*: *newt* is developed out of *eft* (Anglosaxon *efete*), which in Old-English sounds *evet* and alongside therewith *ewt* (MAUNDEV.), in North-English dialects still *effet*; *nall*, *nawl* stand beside *awl* (Anglosaxon *avul*, *æl*, *âl*), *nias* is the same word as *eyas*; in Old-English and dialectically *neme* is like *eme* (Anglosaxon *eám*, *uncle*); in Old-English also *nedder*, *neddre* stands alongside of *edder*; that is *adder*. The prefixing of an *n* in proper names beginning with a vowel is very familiar to the Englishman: *Nib* (*Isabella*, shortened *Isbe*, *Ib*), *Ned* (*Edward*), *Naquilina*, *Acky*, *Nacky*, queen *Nacky*! (*Orway*); *Nanny*, *Nancy* (*Anna*), *Nab* (*Abigail*), *Nobs* (*Obadiah*), *Nump* (*Humphrey*, Old-English *Humfred*). Moreover that *n* also has proceeded from the definite article is without doubt; thus the name *Noke*, *Nokes* (from *atten oak* see p. 173) in SKELTON I. 344 even *Jacke at Noke*; hence the form *nale* for *ale* (SKELTON I. 45. at *nale*), compare *atte nale* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 124), where we must still write *atten ale*, as in MORTE ARTHURE MS. Lincoln f. 88. instead of: the yolke of a *naye* (that is egg) is to be written: of an *aye*. See HALLIWELL s. v. *naye*.

Among the *lipletters*, an insignificant and now silent *w* often precedes *h*: *whole* (Anglosaxon *hāl*), Old-English *hole*, *whore* (Anglosaxon *hōre*, Gothic *hōrjô*), Old-English *hore*, *hoore*; *whoop* (Old-Highdutch *wituhopha*, French *huppe*) and *whoop* alongside of *hoop* as a substantive and verb = shout (compare French *houper*, expressions of the chase). The older language had more cases of this sort, as *wham*, *whome* (home), *whas-schen* (wash), *whot* (hot) &c., which are still partially preserved by the dialects; thus we even find *whone* alongside of *wone*, instead of one (*ân*).

For *rap* (to steal, compare Swedish *rappa*, Old-norse *hrapa*

= ruere) is sometimes found written *wrap*, perhaps only through a confusion of the verbs of the same sound. Compare moreover the Anglosaxon *vrynge* and *ringe*, a spider; *vreotan* and *reotan*, *plorare*.

Among the **toothsounds** *s* is found prefixed to Anglosaxon roots beginning with a consonant, which is familiar to Germanic roots generally, and therefore to the Anglosaxon. In Anglosaxon we find for instance *meltan* and *smeltan* = *liquefacere*, as in English *melt* and *smelt*, *creak*, *scream* and *shriek* (Old-norse *shrækia*, *quiritare*) &c. alongside of each other. Thus English has now *sneeze* instead of the older *neese* (Anglosaxon *niesan* according to Somner; compare Old-English *nausna*, *olfacere*), alongside of *crawl* (Lowdutch *krabbeln*, *krawweln*) also *scrawl* in the same sense; instead of the Old-English *cracchen* the Modern-English has *scratch*; alongside of *quash* stand *squash* and *squeeze* (Anglosaxon only *cvisan* or *cvisan*, compare the Lowdutch *quêse* = a bruise, Swedish *quäsa*, to bruise).

s in *she* is also to be regarded as a strengthening of the initial sound instead of the Anglosaxon *heó*, although even the Old-saxon offers *siu*. In the Anglosaxon a guttural *h* entered in *he*, *heó*, hit before the vowel of the pronoun (Gothic *is*, *si*, *ita*); the Old-English offers for the nominative of the feminine *heo*, *ho* and *hoe* (DAME SIRIZ), therewith also sometimes *scho*, *sche* (ROB. OF BRUNNE and RITSON'S ROMANCES), like the Scotch (DAV. LINDSAY), so that in *she* the combination of the Gothic *s* with the Anglosaxon *h*, *ch*, lies, as it were, before us.

Among the **gutturals** we find *h* and *y* prefixed to initial vowels. In Anglosaxon words, however, *h* is hardly to be met with, as in *gold-hammer*, *yellow-hammer* (Anglosaxon *amora*). In Old-English this was more frequent, for instance in *hus* (us) (TOWNELEY MYSTER.), *habide* (abide) (LYDGATE), *habot* (abbot) (ID.) *heddir*, *heddre* (adder) (RELIQ. ANTIQ. II. 273) and others. In Romance words this was very common in Old-English, according to the Old-French example. In Modern-English *heben* (ebony) still stands in SPENSER, *hebenon* in SHAKESPEARE; *hermit* has remained along with *eremite* as in French; but *habundant*, *haboundance*, *Helise* (Elysium), *Hester* (Esther) &c. have long been abandoned.

Here also belongs the adding of *h* to *w* at the beginning of *whelm* (Anglosaxon *velman* = *aestuar*, *forvelman* = *obruere*), and perhaps also in *whurt*, *whortleberry* (Anglosaxon *vyrt* = *herba*, but compare the Anglosaxon *heorotberige*). Even in Anglosaxon *hvistlan*, *hvet*, *hväl* stand alongside of *vistlan*, *vet*, *väl*. *Rh* stands instead of *r* in *Rhine* (*Rîn*, but the Latin *Rhenus*), *hryme* alongside of *rime* (Anglosaxon *rîm*, *rîma*).

An initial *y* is sometimes developed in words which in Anglosaxon began with *éa*, *ed*, *ea*, *eo*; *yea*n, *yea*nling (*eánjan*, *eácnjan* = *parturire*) along with *ean*, *eanling*; *yew* (*eóv*) = *taxus*, Old-English also *ew*; *York* (*Eoforvic*), Old-English

Euerwik (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); you, your (eov, eover, Gothic izvis, izvara, compare ye, Anglosaxon gē, Gothic jus), Half-saxon guw, gure, in Old-English also yeme (eām, uncle), yede, yode = went, Latin ivi (eode). Also before other vowels *y* appears at the beginning; yarly instead of early (ærlīc) stands in Palsgrave Acolastus 1540; yeld instead of elde in Skelton; down to the seventeenth century yere instead of heir (HALLIWELL s. v.). In Old-English stand the symbols *y* and *ȝ* in Yende (India), ȝer (ere, Anglosaxon ær), ȝese (ease), ȝyndyng (ending), HALLIWELL HIST. OF FREEMAS) and others. Dialects often prefix the vowel *y*: yaits (oats), Cumberland; yan (one), yak (oak) North. and others.

b) The insertion of consonants is not rare.

Of the nasal and liquid letters *n*, *l* and *r* are here to be considered. *N* is found before an initial guttural and dental *g* of the following syllable: nightingale (Anglosaxon nihtegale), Leffrington (from the propername Leófric); messenger (Old-French messagier), Old-English still messenger; passenger (passagier), porringer = porridge-post (from the Latin porrum, Anglosaxon porr, Old-English porret, in which the form porrage alongside of porridge is to be placed at the foundation); murenger, wall-overseer (belongs to murage), Armingier, proper name (from the Latin armiger), popinjay, formerly popingay (SKELTON l. 409.) Old-French papegai. *N* stands before a dental *c* and *s* in the compound enhance, formerly also haunce (Old-French enhalcer, enhaucer), as in Old-English in ensample (Old-French essample); or before a dental *ch*: encheason in Spenser (Old-French acheson, ochoison), chinch (chiche). Also before *d* it is inserted in flindermouse, alongside of flittermouse and flickermouse (Old-norse flædar-mús, flagurmús), as in Anglosaxon in Sarmende (Latin Sarmatae). The Old-English giterne, Modern-English gittern, (guitar) rests upon the Old-French giterre, giterne. *N*, in Ordinal numbers, as seventh (seofôða), ninth (nigôða), tenth (teôða) and so forth, cannot be regarded as an insertion, although in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER we still read seuethe, nithe, tethe &c., since in the later formation the cardinal numbers were reverted to. The insertion of an *n* between vowels, as in mendinaunt (compare the Modern-English mendicant), belongs to Old-English.

The *l* appears as an insertion after Lip-, Tooth- and Throat-sounds before a mute *e*, wherein we rather see an unconscious transition into a syllable of formation, than a phonetic necessity. This addition is old: manciple (Old-French mancipe, Latin mancipium) even in Chaucer; participle, principle, syllable, myrtle (French myrte), periwinkle (French pervenche, Latin pervinca), Old-English pervinke. The unwarranted insertion of *l* in could (Anglosaxon cûðe) belongs to the later period of the language, which assimilated could to the forms

would, should; the moderns have in vain commenced to uproot the *l*.

An inserted *r* leans upon initial consonants as a joint initial sound; thus, in the combination *tr*, *dr*: cartridge (French *cartouche*), compare partridge (French *perdrix*, Latin *perdix*); chawdron, chaudron formerly also chaldron, chaundron, chawtherne = entrails (Lowdutch *kaldūnen*, Lübeck Chronicle: *koldune*, Highdutch *Kaldaunen*); Old-Engl. often: *arismetrike* (arithmetic) &c.; also *gr*: groom (Anglosaxon *guma*), bridegroom (*brýdguma*), vagrant (Old-French *vagans*, *vagant*); of *pr*, *br* there are hardly any instances in Modern-English: culprit, unclear in its termination, seems to come from the Latin *culpa*; Old-English is *astrelabre* (*astrolabe*). At the end of a syllable *r* is seen before other consonants; before *s*: hoarse (Anglosaxon *hās*, Old-Highdutch *heis*, *heisc*), Old-English and Old-Scotch *hais*; harslet alongside of haslet = a pig's chitterlings (Old-French *hastellet* = *échinée de porc frais*). In trousers or trowsers (Old-French *trosse*, from *torser*, *trosser*) the *r* has perhaps arisen through an unconscious change of the ending of a substantive in *er*. *r* has been inserted before *th* in swarth alongside of swath (Anglosaxon *svaðu*); before *p* in corporal alongside of caporal (French *caporal*, from *cap* = *chef*); in marchpane (French *massepain*), on the other hand, a primitive *r* has been preserved, (compare the Italian *marzapane* = *Marci panis*?)

Of the lip-sounds *p* and *b* are frequently inserted; *p* commonly between *m* after a short vowel and a following *n*, *t* or *s*; before *n* in the Old-English *benempnen*, in Spenser: *benempt* (Anglosaxon *benemman*), *solempne* (solemn), *compnen* (summon), *sompnour* (somner, Old-French *semoneur*), *sompnoienze* (somniale); and after the Old-French pattern: *dampne*, *dampnation*; before *t* often even in Modern-English: *empty* (Anglosaxon *emetig*, *emtig*), Old-English still *amty* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), Northampton (Northamtūn), Bampton (Beámdūn), *tempt* (Old-French *tenter*, but also *tempteur*, Latin *tentare*), *sumpter* (Old-French *somier*, *sumer*); as well as before *s*: *glimpse* (from the Anglosaxon *gleám*), Old-English *glimsing* (CHAUSSER); compare *dimpse* (from *dim*) = twilight in Somerset; *sempster* alongside of *semster*, *seamster* (Anglosaxon, *seámostre*), *Dempster*, a propername, of the same meaning as *deemster* = a judge; *Sampson* (French *Samson*); also stands alongside of *tempse*, *temse*, a sieve (Old-French *tamis*, Lowdutch *tāms*, Anglosaxon *temes* = *cribrum*; whether of the same meaning as *Temese*, *Temes*, *Thames*, Cymric *tām isc* = *tractus aquae*?). *P* is rarely inserted before a vowel: *whimper*, Scotch *quhimper* (Highdutch *wimmern*, Lowdutch *wēmern*).

Between *m* after a short vowel, and a following vowel *b*, on the other hand is often put; this even in Anglosaxon, compare the Anglosaxon *scolimbos*, Greek and Latin *scolymos*. English instances are: *embers* (Anglosaxon *æmyrje* = *cinis*), *slum-*

ber (slumerjan); thus we still find in Modern-English stam-ber (ARMIN'S NEST OF NINNIES 1608) for stammer (from the Anglosaxon stamor = balbus), in the fifteenth century swimming (HALLIWELL s. v.) for swimming (Anglosaxon swimman). But the insertion of *b* before an *l* is very common: nimble (Anglosaxon nêmol, numol = capax, from the verb niman, compare the Old-norse næmr = capax, docilis), shambles (scamol), fumble, to stammer and fumble (Lowdutch vimmeln, vammeln, vummeln, Danish famla = to grope), mumble, Old-English mamelen (PIERS PLOUGHMAN) (Lowdutch mummelen, Hollandish mommelen), crumble (from the Anglosaxon crûman, Highdutch krûmeln), tumble (Danish tumle, Lowdutch tummeln, but Anglosaxon tumbjan), stumble (North-English stummer), grumble (from the Anglosaxon grimman, Lowdutch grummen, to sound deep, thunder, in the March of Brandenburg: grummeln, French grommeler), chamblet, camblet alongside of camlet, camelot &c.

Toothsounds are inserted; especially *t* and *d* after an other consonant before *n* and particularly *r* (also *en*, *er* with the glib *e*) although *t* at present is silent before *n*. *T* is wont to come in after *s*: glisten (Anglosaxon glisnjan), tapistry (French tapisserie; even in Old-English tapise in RON. OF BRUNNE, Old-Scotch tapesse as a verb); whereas *d* is inserted, especially after *n* and *l*: thunder (Anglosaxon punor, yet is already cited alongside of punderslege, punorslege); gender (Old-French genre, Latin gener-is, with which compare to gender, engender, Old-French engendrér, alongside of engenner); kindred, Old-English kunrede, kynrede, kinrede (from the Anglosaxon cynn = progenies, not from cynd = natura); elder (Anglosaxon ellen, ellarn), alder (Anglosaxon alor, alr), Old-Scotch aller; alderliest (SHAKESPEARE) and thence even a comparative alderleefer (COBLER OF CANTERBURY 1608), aldertruest (GREEN), as in Old-English aldermest, alderlast, alderlest (= least), alderlowest, alderbest, alderfirst, alderformest, alderwisist, alderwerst &c. that is Anglosaxon calra = omnium with the superlative, Old-English and Old-Scotch also aller. Compare also Anglosaxon baldsam alongside of balsam. Other insertions of *t* and *d* are: fitz (Old-French fils, fix), jaundice (French jaunisse), with which we may in some measure compare the Anglosaxon yntse, yndse, for the Latin *uncia* *unc* !

An *s* inserted before *l* is probably to be ascribed to a mixture with the French form in island (Anglosaxon eáland and igland, êgland, compare the Old-French isle, Old-English yle) and also in Carlisle (Celtic Caerluel, Caerleol, Latin Luguballium), as the Old-French prevails also in aisle (= French aile). In Modern-French many *s* of this sort have been again rejected before *l* and other consonants, others have remained and as in English, have become silent. Old-English possessed this *s* also in other words, like ydolaster, idolastre, now idolater.

Throat-sounds are likewise among inserted letters, although mostly long since silent. Here belongs *g* before *n*, perhaps mostly to be ascribed to a false analogy: feign (Old-French feindre, faindre), Old-English feynen, fainen, hence in Modern-English not brought back with a regard to feignois; feignant; eigne, law expression (ainsnes, ainsnez, Modern-French aîné); foreign, foreigner (Old-French forain), Old-English forein; sovereign (Old-French souverain, souverain), Old-English souveraine, sovereyne, also Anglicized soferand (TOWNELEY MYSTER.); coigne = corner, alongside of coin, quoin (Old-French coin, although also coignée, an axe is derived from it). More striking is the sounding of the *g* in: impregnable (imprenable), perhaps preserved from old conjunctive forms of the verb prendre, like preigue, pregnies; also in shingle, even in Old-English shyngle, schingle, whence a verb shynglen, to make out of shingles or planks, which points to the Old-Highdutch scindala, scintila, Latin scandula, which has passed through the Old-French escande, escandole. An unjustified *gh* has thrust itself in spright (Old-French esperit), perhaps in recollection of Old-French forms quicter, promectre and the like. In Old-English it was more frequent, as in spight (spite = despit), where it might return with a regard to the Latin form *c*, as still in delight (Old-French deleit, delit), Old-English delit, but also in feght, (= faith, Old-French foit) and others. More frequent in Old-English was the insertion of an *h* before vowels, whether preceded by a vowel or consonant: proheme (proemium), mirrhour, still in Spenser, abhominable, still derided in Shakespeare L. L. 1. 1. as the usage of his time, and others. This aspiration has totally ceased, as well as at the beginning of a word.

- c) At the end of the word scarcely any other insignificant sound than a lip or tooth letter enters, rarely the nasal *n*.

The *n* is an addition in bittern (French butor), Old-English bitore; likewise in marten, also martern (Anglosaxon mearð, French marte, martre, Scotch martrick, Lowdutch mârte, mâter, mâterken); the Old-English had complin (Old-French complie), now compline.

Even Anglosaxon favoured the lipsound *b* after *m*, where the Old-Highdutch had *p*, compare lamb; Old-Highdutch lamp; camb, Old-Highduth champ &c. English annexed it to a final *m*, where it was lacking in Anglosaxon: limb (lim), Old-English lyme; crumb and crum (crume), thumb (puma), numb and benumb, compare num = dull, stupid (TRAGEDY OF HOFFMANN 1631; perhaps belonging to niman? compare beniman = stupefacere).

Among toothsounds *t* readily annexes itself to a final consonant, as to *n*, partly perhaps from a confusion of the suffix with one better known: parchment (Old-French parcamin, parchemin), Old-English parchemyn (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 285), ancient (Old-French ancien, anchien), Old-English auneyen (MAUNDEV.), cormorant (French cormoran, Cymric môr-fran,

searaven, with *corb* prefixed, see Diez s. v.), pheasant (Old-French phaisan), Old-English fesaunt; pennant along with pennon (Old-French pennon, penon); *margin* (margin) (SHAKESPEARE and LONGFELLOW); such forms were sound even in Old-French alongside of those in *an*, for instance peasant (Old-French paisant), tyrant, Old-English also tyrande, tyrandie (Old-French tiran, tirant), tiran (SPENSER); Old-English *romant*, *romaunt* (Old-French roman, romant). Compare Old-English *orizont*, Modern-English *horizon*, and others.

Thus also has *anont* arisen (Anglosaxon *on efn*, *on emn* = *e* regione), *anen* (MAUNDEVILLE).

As readily does *t* join itself to a final *s*, as in the substantives *behest* (Anglosaxon *behæst*), *bequest* (Anglosaxon *cviiss* = *sermo*, *gecviss* = *conspiratio*; the substantive *cwith* in *Verstegan* is the Anglosaxon *cvide* = *sermo*). For interest as a verb Shakspeare has *interest*; as a substantive Spenser still *interesse*; as substantive, Shakspeare *interest*, perhaps through the influence of the French. The joining of *t* on to particles, which have proceeded from the proper genitive termination *es*, is familiar to the later tongue: against (Anglosaxon *tôgênes*, *tôgênes*), Old-English *againes*, *ageins*, *agens* and others; amongst (Anglosaxon *âmang*), Old-Engl. *amonges*, *emongs*, even in the sixteenth century; midst, amidst (Anglosaxon *tô middes*), Old-English *yn pe middes*, *amiddes*; amongst (to the Anglosaxon *lang*, *long*; compare the Middle-Highdutch *langes*), whilst (Anglosaxon *hvil*, *tempus*), Old-English *whiles*; besides, even the forms with *t* are already old. We even find *anent*, Modern-English *anent*; *onste* (CHESTER PLAYS II. 100), Modern-English *once*, dialectically even now *wunst*, *wonst*. Here also belongs the popular *Nest* in the abbreviated name *Agnes*. The forms *betwixt*, *'twixt* (Anglosaxon *betvihs*), Old-English *betwix*, *atwixen*, has even in Anglosaxon the collateral form in *x* = *hs* and *xt*: *betvux*, *betvuxt*.

In *tuft* (French *touffe*) a derivational termination lies at the bottom of the *t*; compare the Picard *touffette*. A *t* is also added in *thwart*, *athwart*, to the Anglosaxon *pveorh*, *pveorg*; compare the Highdutch *zwerch*; this *t* yields the Halfsaxon substantive form *pwerret* = *malum*, and the Danish and Swedish adverb *tvert*.

An insignificant *d* is especially joined to a final *n*: *hind* = *servant* (Anglosaxon *hîna*), Old-English *byne*; *fond* (from the Old-norse *fâna*, *fatue se gerere*), Old-English *fon*, even in Spenser, alongside of *fond*; *lend* (Anglosaxon *lænan*), Old-English and Scotch *lenen* = *to lend*; *round*, alongside of the obsolete *roun*, still in Skelton, Spenser and Shakspeare: *to whisper* (Anglosaxon *rûnjan*); *sound* (Anglosaxon substantive *sôn*, Old-French *son*, *sun*, verb *soner*, *suner*); Old-English substantive *soun*, verb *sounen*; *astound*, alongside of *astonish* (Old-French *estoner*, mixed with the Anglosaxon *stunjan*, English *stun*), Old-English *astonen*, *astonnen*. The forms com-

pound, expound, propound have Old-English verbs expounen and expounden for patterns, but perhaps rest upon Old-French pondre, espondre &c. The substantive riband, ribband, alongside of ribbon, belongs to quite modern times; the Old-English is riban (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 29), French ruban. The Old-English has Symond (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 240), shonden, Modern-English shun (Anglosaxon scūnjan) and the like; dialectically, as in Warwickshire, *d* is readily added to words in *own*: gownd instead of gown, drownd instead of drown &c. *D* is added after *l* in mould (Old-French moler, an adverbial-termination, as hereabouts, midships; sometimes it appears then turned into *ce*: once, Old-English enes, since, Old-English sithens, contracted since, and others.

But *s* often appears in the names of places, especially French ones, by a false analogy. French names of towns namely have often received *s* through the transfer of the name of a people to its place of abode, and even here a false analogy was the occasion of the joining on of an unjustified *s*. In English we find Lyons, Saint Germain, Saint Maloes and the like.

More difficult is the explanation of the *s* at the end of proper-names of persons. Here we must often oscillate between a genitive and a plural *s*. Namely, if in the names John Reynolds, James Phillips (compare LOWER p. 120) the image of a genitive is near at hand, it is striking, when in Fiddes's life of Cardinal Wolsey, the bishop of London, Edmund Bonner, is called Dr. Edmunds, and the bishop of Winchester, Stephan Gardiner, Dr. Stephens. This reminds us that no one thought any longer of *s* as a suffix. That this *s* originally frequently denoted the plural, is proved by terms like Shanks, Longshanks, Crookshanks, perhaps also Bones &c. Names like Leeves, Flowers, Grapes, Pease, Shales, Crosskeys, Irons, Briggs, Bridges, Barnes (barn), Sands, Bankes (bank), Woods, Hedges &c. also look like plurals. The names Brothers, Boys, Cousins (and even Children occurs) are perhaps likewise plurals. Common people, like Noakes and Styles, seem to have an especial predilection for the plural *s*.

The reduplication of consonants in the middle and at the end of the words, unwarranted by the fundamental form of the words, needs a special discussion. In the domain of the English tongue the proneness, partly dependent on physiological conditions, to double the consonant after the originally short or the shortened vowel, had early made itself felt; and that most

naturally in the middle of a word and after the accented syllable, where the consonant stood between vowels, less naturally at the end of the word, as well as in the middle and at the end in an unaccented syllable. The Anglosaxon offered reduplications of consonants in the middle, less at the end of a word, after a short syllable.

Orm, the author of the so called Ormulum, who wrote this, his metrical harmony of the gospels, as it seems, towards the end of the twelfth century in Halfsaxon language, and after every short vowel doubled the consonant with principal obstinacy, even where another consonant; either final or beginning the new syllable, followed. has not been able to force this process upon his successors; but his attempt to carry out the reduplication of consonants in his manner proves that, to the pronunciation of his contemporaries, a sharpening of vowels, even in an unaccented syllable, was not unknown, which rendered possible a representation of the manner. He writes *icc*, *patt*, *piss*, *off*, *iss*, *magg*, *wipp*; *swille*, *rihht*: *ennglish*, *nemmed*; *tæchepp*, *wordess* and so on. Old-English, although mostly restricting the reduplication to the accented syllable, frequently fluctuates in the reduplication of consonants, partly at the end of words, partly in the unaccented syllable, and writes *lytylle*, *tremylle*, *pepylle*, *devylle*, *pokett*, alongside of forms with a single consonant (MAUNDEV. and TOWNELEY MYSTER.).

Reduplications are also found after a long vowel and a diphthong, as *peasse* (peace), *greatt*, *greatte* (great), *outt*, *withoutten*, *fowlle*, *heyll*, *leyff* and others (TOWNEL. MYSTER.). The sixteenth century often spells *mortall*, *generall*, *tragicall*, while the fourteenth frequently offers *crewel*, *peril*, *spiritual*. A universal principle does not prevail even at present; but it is remarked that the absence of reduplication of the consonant in the middle of a word after a short vowel of the accented syllable is met with less in Germanic than in Romance words more rarely in disyllables than in polysyllables, more frequently in more modern than in more ancient words.

With regard to the various classes of reduplicated consonants it is to be remarked that:

1. The nasal and liquid consonants were not generally reduplicated in Anglosaxon at the end of a word, although reduplicated in the middle of a word. In Old-French their reduplication, like that of the remaining consonants, was only usual before a (mute) final *e*. In Modern-English the reduplication in the middle of a word, even with the consonants originally single, is very common; at the end of a word, only with *l*. We regard here only unjustified reduplications, and abstract from the rule by which, in syllabic inflection, and in derivation, the accented root-syllable doubles its final consonant.

In the middle of a word *m* and *n*, but especially *l* and *r* are doubled: *emmet* (Anglosaxon *âmête*), *limmier* (Old-French

liemier, compare English limehound, from the Latin *ligamen*), mummy (French *momie*); manner (Old-French *maniere*), dinner (*disner*, *diner*), kennel (*chenil*); yellow (Anglosaxon *gēlu*), swallow (*svēlgan*), follow (*folgjan*), gallop (Old-French *galoper*), jolly (*jolif*), pullet (*poulet*, perhaps not with a reference to the Latin *pullus*); arrow (Anglosaxon *areve*, *earh*), marrow (*mearh*, *mearg*), quarrel (Old-French *querele*), garret (*garite*), carry (*charier*, although belonging to *carrus*), hurricane (Spanish *huracan*) &c. At the end of a word *l* is doubled in: mill (Anglosaxon *mylen*), till (*tiljan* = *colere terram*) and till alongside of until (Anglosaxon *til*, preposition and conjunction *ad* and *donec*), well (*vēla*, *vēl*).

2. **Lipletters** appear on the whole seldom reduplicated in Anglo-saxon; *bb* appeared most frequently in the middle and at the end of a word, where it was commonly simplified, *pp* was rare, *ff* only in propernames and foreign words. In Old-French their reduplication hardly existed. In Modern-English neither *rr* nor *ww* is in use, yet *ff* is found even in an unaccented final syllable developed out of a single *f*.

In the middle of a word only an unjustified *p* and *b* are found reduplicated, rarely *f*, since *f* before a vowel was wont to pass over into *v*, but it is sometimes reduplicated before a vowel and before *l*, as also *b* before this liquid: pepper (Anglosaxon *pipor*), copper (in Anglo-saxon the adjective *cypren* is found; on the other hand Old-Highdutch *kuphar*, Latin *cuprum*), puppy, puppet (French *poupée*, Latin *pupa*), supper (French *souper*), fripper, frippery (Old-French verb *friper*, substantive *friperie* &c.); gibbet (Old-French *gibet*), ribbon (*ruban*), cribble (*crible*), pebble (Anglosaxon *pabol*); at the end of the stem *f* mostly stands reduplicated: stiff (Anglosaxon *stif*), cliff (Anglosaxon *clif*), staff (Anglosaxon *stāf*), gaffle (Anglosaxon *gafol*); in an unaccented syllable: sheriff (Anglosaxon *gerēfa*), bailiff (Old-French *bailif*), plaintiff (*plaintif*), caitiff (*caitif*).

3. The **toothletters** *t*, *d* and *ð* also appear reduplicated in Anglo-saxon, but commonly become single at the end. The sibilant *s* also shared this quality. In Old-French hardly any other sound in the interior of the root (a part from the reduplication of *t* appearing before a mute *e*) was considered except *s*. In Modern-English, where even the primitive *ðð* (compare the Old-English *siththen*) has been long abandoned, reduplications of single consonants often occur in the middle of a word, especially of the *t*, *d* and *s*, as well as of the *z*, whereof the last two are also reduplicated when final. A reduplication of the *sh*, resting principally upon the Anglo-saxon *sc* can hardly be conceded in Old-English, where certainly *ssh* (*fresshe*), *ssch* (*whassched* [MAUNDEV.], *assche* [IB.]) occurs.

Reduplications in the middle of a word, where *l* again stands as a twin consonant, are, for instance: tatter (Old-norse *tetur* = *lacerare vestis*, Anglo-saxon *tēter*, *tetr*), shuttle (Anglo-saxon *sceátel*); mittens (French *mitaine*) even in CHAUCER,

Old-Scotch mittanis; matter (Old-French *matière*, *matere*), mutton (Old-French *molton*, *mouton*), glutton (Old-French *gloton*, *glouton*, perhaps not on account of the Latin *gluto*, *glutto*); addice (Anglosaxon *adese*), waddle (Anglosaxon *vād-lan* = *vagari*, from *vadan* = *vadere*), saddle (Anglosaxon *sadul*, *sadl*), sudden (Old-French *sodain*, *sudain*); scissors (Old-French *cisoire*), lesson (*leçon*); frizzle (Old-French *friser*); at the end of a word *s* is frequently, *z* rarely reduplicated: brass (*brās*), glass (*glās*), grass (*grās*), frizz (Old-French *friser*); also in an unaccented syllable: harness (Old-French *harnas*, *harnois*), cutlas (Old-French *coutelas*, but *coutelasse* is also cited).

4. **Throat-sounds** were reduplicated in Anglosaxon, like *cc*, *cg* for *gg* and *hh*; in Old-French single roots hardly offer guttural reduplication. Old-English had the reduplications *cch* = *cc* and *gg* (*cacchen*, *grucchen*, *dregges*, *buggen*, *abreggen*, *juggen*). Modern-English has in Germanic words developed the reduplication of *c* as *ck*, in others as *cc* or even *cq* (but only in composition, as in *acquaintance* = *accointance*), likewise *gg* out of single consonants; *hh*, which would be a reduplicated *gh*, does not occur, although Old-English offers forms like *ynowzgh* with an apparently triple *h*. But, since *c* has partly become dental, like *g*, reduplications of these dentals are represented in Modern-English by *tch* and *dg(e)*, which only rarely have arisen out of single consonants, and mostly in Romance words. *ck*, *tch* and *dg(e)* are to be met with equally in the middle and at the end of words; *cc* only in the middle, *gg* hardly ever at the end. The gutturals under these reduplications also appear regularly before *l*.

Guttural reduplications, which have arisen from single consonants in the middle and at the end, are, for instance, the following: *ck*: chicken (*cycen*, *cicen*), reckon (Anglosaxon *recnan*, *recnjan*), fickle (*ficol*), knuckle (*cnucle*), brick (*brice*, French *brique*), suck (*sūcan*, *sūgan*); *cc*: succory, chiccory (French *chicorée*); *gg*: waggon and wagon (Anglosaxon *vāgen*), haggard (Old-French *hagard*), juggle (Old-French *jugler*), egg (Anglosaxon *æg*).

Reduplications of the guttural, which has become dental, in the middle and at the end of a word; *tch*: kitchen (Anglosaxon *cy-cene*), butcher (Old-French *boucher*), dutchess, alongside of duchess, pitch (Anglosaxon *pic*, Gothic *peik*), watch (Anglosaxon *vacjan*, *vacigan*); dispatch (Old-French *despescher*, compare impeach, Old-French *empescher*); *dg(e)*: fadge (Anglosaxon *fagjan*), abridge (Old-French *abrevier*, *abregier*), Old-English *abreggen*; lodge (Old-French *loge*, *logier*), Old-English *logge*. They are also to be met with in the unaccentuated final syllable, as in *partridge*, Old-English *partrich* &c.

Assimilation of Consonants.

The original word may undergo a change, in that one of two different consonants, mostly the final and the initial sound of two syllables, either originally standing beside each other, or else meeting together after a rejection of vowels, assimilates itself to the other, whence arises the reduplication either of the former or of the latter consonant. In general the second consonant beginning a new, even an unaccounted syllable, prevails to which the preceding one is wont to join itself, although, the nasal consonant especially, rather draws the succeeding one over to itself. But English has brought over numerous assimilations from its constituent tongues.

1. The assimilation of a consonant with a nasal or liquid letter is perhaps the most frequent. Here belong:

mm instead of *fm*: *lemman*, now sometimes *leman* (*lefmon* DAME SIRIZ p. 11. *levemon* p. 12.), dearest, darling. Compare *lammastide* (Anglosaxon *hlāfmesse* and even *hlāmmesse*); instead of *dm*: *gammer* (Anglosaxon *godmōdor*); instead of *mb*: *plummer* alongside of *plumber* (French *plombier*), *plummet* &c.; instead of *nm*: *hammock* (Hollandish *hangmat*, -mak), *grammercy*! (COLLEY CIBBER) = *grand' merci*.

nn instead of *nd*: *winnow* (Anglosaxon *vindvjan*), dialectically *windewe*; *Bennet* (Benedict), *bannerol* alongside of *bandrol* (Old-French *banderolle*); *trunnel* alongside of *trundle* (Anglosaxon *tryndel* = *orbis*); instead of *nv*: *gunnel* alongside of *gunwale*.

ll instead of *lh*: *fullam*, false die (from the name of a place Fulham); instead of *rl*: *ballast* (Old-English *barlest*, Swedish *barlast*, Danish *baglast*).

rr instead of *rn*: *garrison* (Old-French *garnison*, *guarnison*, but also partly confounded with *garison*), Old-English *garnison* (CHAUCER); instead of *dr*: *Derric*, *Derrick* (Anglosaxon *peōdric*, French *Thierry*); instead of *thr*: *Surrey* (Anglosaxon *Sûðrēa*, compare Old-Highdutch *sundarauwa*), Old-English *Soperei* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); instead of *gr*: *stirrup* (Anglosaxon *stigerâp*, *stigrâp*); instead of *nr*: *Harry* alongside of *Henry*.

2. Among **lipletters** another consonant is especially assimilated to *b* and *f*.

bb instead of *pb*: *robbins*, which means rope-bands; instead of *gb*: *Hubbard* (Old-Highdutch *Hugibert*, compare Anglosaxon *hyge* = *mens*).

ff: *gaffer* (Anglosaxon *godfāder*); *Suffolk* (Anglosaxon *Sûð-folc*), Old-English *Sopfolc* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER).

3. A **toothsound** occasions the assimilation of another sound.

tt instead of *ct*: *dittany* (*dictamnus*); similarly in Old-English *Atteon*, Latin *Actæon* (CHAUCER), like the pronunciation of *virtuals*; *ditty* (belonging to the Anglosaxon *dihtan*, Latin *dictare*), Old-English *dite* as a substantive.

In Old-English *b* also assimilated itself to *t* in *dettour* = *debtor* (CHAUCER).

dd instead of *dw*: in Old-English *goddot* = *godwot* (HAVELOCK).
ss instead of *ths*: *Sussex* (Anglosaxon *Sūðseaxan*), Old-English *Soupsæx*; *liſsom* is in like manner written for *lithesome*, compare *bliss* (Anglosaxon *blīðs*, *bliss*); instead of *ds*: *gossip* (Anglosaxon *godsibb*), Old-English *godsib*, compare *gospel* for *godspell*; instead of *ts* and *st*: *mess*, to feed &c. (Anglosaxon *metsjan* = *cibare*), compare *bless* (Anglosaxon *blētsjan* and *blēssjan*); *misseltoe* alongside of *mistletoe* (Anglosaxon *misteltā*), *tressel* alongside of *trestle* (Old-French *trestel*, Modern-French *tréteau*, according to Diez, Hollandish *driestal*).

zz instead of *rs*: *nuzzle* in the meaning of to foster (Old-English *noursle* = to nurse up).

4. To a guttural another consonant is hardly ever assimilated.

gg is put for *rg* in *guggle* instead of *gurgle*; in Warwickshire it is used for *gargle*.

Transposition of Sounds, or Metathesis.

The transposition of the sounds of a word, insignificant for the notion, is a general phenomenon, brought about by a physiological cause, the **Elective Affinity** of the sounds, and supported by the defective apprehension of the sounds as a whole. It affects various sounds, but liquid sounds are especially the cause of the transposition. This metathesis distinguishes words partly into various periods, partly into various dialects of the same tongue.

1. **Two consonants immediately following each other may change places with each other.** At the beginning of a word this, at least in the written tongue, is the case with the Anglosaxon *hw*, now appearing only as *wh*. In Old-English writings the instances of the position *hw* are scanty; more early, on the contrary, we find *wh* almost everywhere, unless *h* is thrown out, as in *ROB. OF GLOUCESTER* in *wo* (who), *wer* (where), *wat* (what) &c. But *wh* also stands, in a striking manner, for *qu* (Anglosaxon *cw*), as in *whik* (quick), *whake* (quake), *whaynt* (quaint) (TOWNEL. MYSTER.), and even now in Northern dialects, whence we might infer the originally sameness of pronunciation of *hw* (*wh*) and *cw* (*qu*); especially since also, conversely, *qu* often appears for *wh*, as in *quetstone* (whetstone) (IBID.), *quete* (wheat), *quedur* (whether) (HALLIWELL s. vv.); whereas Scottish formerly substituted *quh* for *wh*: *quhittle* (whittle), *quhow* (how), *quham* (whom) &c., as *quoh* is likewise found: *qwhicke* (WARKEWORTH'S CHRONICLE p. 3.). As to the present pronunciation of *wh* as *hw* no cause can be assigned for the transposition. Compare *white* (Anglosaxon *hvit*), *wheat* (*hvæte*), *whoop* (*hvôpan*) &c. At the middle and end of a word the inversion of *sp* into *ps* is very common in dialects; thus in *Sussex* they say *wapse*, *hapse*, *clapse* for *wasp*, *hasp*, *clap* &c., in *Kent* *eps* for *asp* &c., as Anglosaxon presented *āpse*, *vāps*, *hāpse*, *vliþs*, *cops* &c., alongside of *āspe*, *vāsp*, *hāspe*, *vliþp*, *cosp* &c. In Chaucer *crispe* and *cirps* are found (Anglosaxon *crisp* and *cirps*); Mo-

dern-English ever prefers *sp*; compare *grasp* (Lowdutch *grapsen*, belonging to *gripen*, Anglosaxon *grīpan*): Methatheses of another sort, as those of *gn* and *ng* in *pēgen*, *pēgn*, *pēng*, *pēn*, English *thane*, *minister* (also familiar to Old-French) are found more rarely in Anglosaxon; or *ns* and *sn* in *clænsjan* and *clæsnjan*, English *cleanse*, which are not met with in English.

2. **Consonants originally commencing two syllables** seldom change places. This is the case in *tickle* (Anglosaxon *citeljan*) alongside of the obsolete *kittle* (SHERWOOD), which still survives in Northern dialects. Old-English certainly used *tinclan*, *tolcettan* in a like sense. Through the interchange of the second liquid consonant of the next syllable with the initial sound of the previous one the apparently compound form *gilliflower*, otherwise *gillofer*, has arisen. In Chaucer it sounds *clouegilofre* (that is French *girofle* = *caryophyllum*).
3. **Two consonants, originally including a vowel** often come together as an initial sound, when the last is a liquid consonant, which is easily attracted by another, so called mute. Modern-English offers this attraction of the *r* in an accented syllable, not unknown either to Anglosaxon or Old-French, still more frequently than Old-English: *bright* (Anglosaxon *beorht*, but also *bryht*), obsolete *bert*; *fright* (*fyrhta*), *wright* (*vyrhta*), *frith*, Scotch *firth*; compare Dieffenbach's Dictionary I, p. 365. 405; *fresh* (Anglosaxon *fesc*, but Old-norse *friskr*, Old-Highdutch *frisc*), *cress* (Anglosaxon *cresse* and *cerse*, compare *vyllcerse*), Old-English *kerse*, like the Danish *karse*; *thrill* (*pyrheljan*, *pyrljan* = *perforare*), Old-English *therlen*, later *thirl*; *nostril* (*naspyrl*), through (Anglosaxon *purh*, *puruh*), Old-English *thurgh* &c.; *brothel* (Old-French *bordel*), Old-English and Old-Scotch *bordel*; *fruggin*, provincial = *oven-fork* (French *fourgon*, from the Latin *furca*), *cruddle* is used for *curdle*, *frubbish*, *frub* for *furbish* (BARRET), *scruf* for *scurf*. The participle *afraid* is Old-English *aferd*, *aferid* (Anglosaxon *aferan*); the Old-French *effreier*, *effroier* and the Anglosaxon *færan* blend here. — Hither too we may refer the unaccented syllables, particularly those in which *l*, less so *r*, come alongside of another consonant and take *e* after them, although here and there the joining on of *e* after the rejection of a vowel between the mute and liquid letters appears as natural an assumption; compare *idle* (Anglosaxon *idel*), Old-English *idel*; *bridle* (Anglosaxon *bridel*), Old-English *bridel*; *apple* (Anglosaxon *appel*, *āpl*), *maple* (Anglosaxon *mapeltreō*), *fickle* (Anglosaxon *ficol*), *sickle* (Anglosaxon *sicol*, *sicel*), Old-English *sikel*; *kirtle* (Anglosaxon *cyrtel*), Old-English *kirtel*; *thistle* (Anglosaxon *pistel*), Old-English *pistill*; *cattle* (Old-French *catel*, *chatel*), Old-English *catel*; *castle*, Old-English *castel*; *mantle* alongside of *mantel*, even with a diversity of meaning. This especially takes place with regard to *l*, whereas with *r* the reverse mostly takes place in Modern-English. Yet *r* also is attracted: *acre* (Anglosaxon *acer*), *augre* alongside of *auger* and some others. Old-English, on the other hand, has *afre*, *thidre*, *whidre*, *watre*, *Alisandre*, *laddre*, *wun-*

dre &c. (MAUNDEV.), where Modern-English reinstated the vowel into its original place.

4. Equally familiar to Modern-English is the separation of the initial liquid in such manner that the two consonants now include the vowel which originally followed them. In an accented syllable this metathesis again affects the *r*, as even in Anglosaxon; compare grās and gārs. grin and girn &c. Modern-English instances are: bird (Anglosaxon bridd. pullus), Old-English and Old-Scotch brid, bridde; third (Anglosaxon pridda), Old-English thridde; thirty (Anglosaxon pritig. prittig), Old-English thritty; dirt (Anglosaxon dritan = cacare, Old-norse drit = excrementum and drita = cacare), Old-Scotch dryte = cacare; thresh (Anglosaxon perscan, but Old-Highdutch driscan); curl (Old-norse krulla, Middle-Highdutch krülle, a lock of hair); girn still stands sometimes alongside of grin; forst still occurs alongside of frost (HALLIWELL), like the Anglosaxon frost and forst, frostig and fyrstig; garner (Old-French grenier and also gernier, Latin granarium); garnet alongside of granate (Italian granato), furmenty alongside of frumenty (compare Old-French froment and forment), purpose (compare Old-French proposer and purposer), burnish (Old-French brunir and burnir) &c. Even in an unaccented syllable *r* frequently, but *l* hardly ever, steps out of the combination with its consonant, so that a return is made to the primitive position of the vowel, which the older tongue, especially the French, had forsaken (compare above, 3), although we might here often think of the insertion of a vowel: sugar, Old-English sugre (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 292. Latin saccharum, Spanish, Portugese azucar, French sucre); letter (Old-French letre, Latin littera), Old-English lettre; pattern (French patron), number (nombre), minister (ministre); without a primitive vowel before *r*: proper (propre), member (membre), vinegar (vinaigre) and others. Even Anglosaxon has plaster, as well as Modern-English, overagainst plastre, plaistre. Old-English forms, like philosophre, Modern-English philosopher, jaspre, Modern-English jasper (jaspis) and the like, are also transpositions. *l* rarely occurs in this case: ouzel, ouzel (Anglosaxon ôsle).
5. The transposition of vowel and consonant in an unaccented syllable, with which also the cases named under 3 and 4 might partly be reckoned, have perhaps often for their cause the attempt to render the spoken sound with greater certainty in writing. Hence the formerly occurring forms fier, hier, and the like, alongside of fire, hire; as also thence, thrice, once, else are not to be taken as transpositions of the older forms thennes, thries, ones, elles, whose *e* became mute.
6. French used to admit an attraction of a short *i* or *ē* by a preceding vowel, when a consonant stood between them and the short vowel was followed by another, as in histoire (historia), poison (potion-em). English has in part abolished these metatheses and approximated itself to the Latin fundamental form, perhaps conformably with Old-French collateral forms; compare

history, story (Old-French *histoire*, *estoire*, but also *estore*), victory (*victoire*, but also *victorie*, *victore*), secretary (*secretaire*), chartulary (*cartulaire*, *chartulaire*) and many more. The words in *ier* (*arius*) belonging here, have also likewise approached the Latin form: primary (Old-French *premier*, *primer*), January (*janvier*) &c. The more frequent transmutations of the liquids *ill* (*il*) and *gn* (partly arising from *gn*, *ng*, partly from *nī*, *nē* before another vowel) are likewise to be considered as a transposition of the French metathesis, in which English likewise had ancient French collateral forms as models: pavilion (Old-French *pavillon*, *paveillon*, Latin *papilion-em*), bullion (French *billon*), minion (French *mignon*), companion (Old-French *compaignon*, *companion*), poniard (*poignard*) and the like. Carrión also belongs here (Old-French *caroigne*), Old-English *caroyne*, *careyne*.

7. Solitary uncommon metatheses are *biovac* alongside of *birovac*; *culverine* (French *couleuvrine*), the Old-English *cokodril* and *cokedril* (MAUNDEV.) (*crocodilus*), *zurstendai* (*yesterday*) (DAME SIRIZ p. 4.). Must we also take *parsley* to be a metathesis? Compare the Old-English *percile* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN).

Assimilation of different words and double forms of the same word.

The constitution of the material of speech and the manner of its embodiment into the mixed tongue, English, the habit of rendering various sounds by one and the same, as well as, conversely, the facility of denoting the same sound by various English letters, explain the possibility both of seeing words originally different represented by one and the same English word, and also of finding the same original word differently represented. The latter found the more support in the constitution of such words as had already passed through another tongue and could be received both in their fundamental form and in their altered shape. This was especially done when occasion was found to couple notional differences on to them. In this even the mistaking of roots, which had been long possessed in their renewed form, was of service.

A) Assimilation of different words.

We have already frequently had occasion to distinguish by their roots words of the same sound. But the number of words belonging to this class is in English very considerable, and demands a careful discrimination in detail, which in the first instance is incumbent upon Lexicography. We give here, out of the great multitude, by way of examples, a list of assimilated words, whose descent seems to result from their phonetic development.

1. Words beginning with a vowel sound.

Impair. 1) Verb: *worsen*, *spoil*, Old-French *empeirer*. 2) Adjective: *uneven*, *unadapted*, French *impair*.

in is sometimes the prepositional particle *in*, sometimes the privative prefix = *un*, before the same roots: informed. Adject. 1) instructed; 2) unformed; infusible, adject. 1) what can be poured in, 2) unmeltable.

Old-English *ilk*. Pron. 1) each, Anglosaxon *ælc*. 2) The same, *idem*, Anglosaxon *felc*.

Eight. 1) Substantive: an island in a river, Anglosaxon *iggað*, *insula*? also spelt *ait*. 2) Numeral; Anglosaxon *eahta*.

ear. 1) Substantive: ear, Anglosaxon *eære*. 2) Substantive: of grain, Anglosaxon *äher*, *ähher*, ear; verb: to shoot out into ears. 3) Verb: plow, Anglosaxon *erjan*.

earn. 1) Verb: gain, Anglosaxon *earnjan*. 2) Verb: collateral form from *yearn*, to long after &c., Anglosaxon *geornjan*. 3) North-English, to curdle, Anglosaxon *ge-rinnan*, *ge-irnan* = *coagulari*.

embers. 1) Substantive: ashes, Anglosaxon *æmyrje*. 2) ember days, embering days, probably from the same root.

emboss. 1) Verb: to swell, technical; Old-French *bosse*, compare *bos-seler*. 2) Verb: to thrust in (the spear) hide (SPENSER), from the Old-French *buisser* = *heurter*, figuratively, as a term of the chase: to worry to death (SPENSER and SHAKESPEARE). 3) To lie in ambush, Old-French *embuissier*, Italian *imboscare*; otherwise *imbosk*.

elder. 1) Adjective and Subst.: older, Anglosaxon *yldra*. 2) Substantive: a sort of tree, Anglosaxon *ellen*, *ellarn*.

even. 1) Substantive: (eve), Anglosaxon *æfen*. 2) Adjective and Adverb; Anglosaxon *ëfen*, Adverb *ëfne*, verb *ëfenjan*.

eft. 1) Substantive, Anglosaxon *efete*. 2) Adverb: = after, Anglosaxon *eft*, *äft*.

edder. 1) Substantive, dialectically: adder, Lowdutch *adder*, Anglosaxon *näddre*. 2) Wood for plashing, verb: to plash hedges, Anglosaxon *eodor*, *edor* = *sepes*, Modern-Highdutch *eder*, *etter*.

egg. 1) Substantive, Anglosaxon *äg*. 2) Verb: to incite, also *edge*, Anglosaxon *egjan* = *excitare*.

exile. 1) Adjective: thin, Latin *exilis*. 2) Substantive: banishment, verb: to banish, Latin *exsilium*, *exsilire*.

Arm. 1) Substantive, Anglosaxon *earm*. 2) Plural, verb: to give weapons, French *armes*, *armer*.

agate. 1) Adverb: on the road, Old-norse *gata* = *semita*. 2) Substantive, Old-norse *agat*.

Ounce. 1) Substantive, Anglosaxon *yndse*, Latin *uncia*. 2) *Lynx*, Old-French, *once*.

2. Words beginning with consonants.

a) With nasal and liquid consonants.

Mint. 1) Substantive: a plant, Anglosaxon *mint*, Latin *mentha*. 2) Coining place, verb; Anglosaxon *mynet*, *mynetjan*.

mew. 1) Substantive, Anglosaxon *mæv*. 2) Substantive: a cage, verb: to pen in, Old-French *mue*, *muer*, (*mutare*). 3) Verb, compare *mewl*, French *miauler*.

mean. 1) Adjective; Anglosaxon *mæne* = *communis*. 2) Middling,

- Substantive: means, Old-French moien, meien. 3) Verb, Anglosaxon mænan, Old-Highdutch meinjan.
- meal*. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon mælu. 2) Anglosaxon mæl = *pastus*.
- mere*. 1) Adjective, Anglosaxon mære, Latin merus. 2) Substantive, = *lucus*, Anglosaxon mere, mære = *mare*, *palus*, *lucus*. 3) Bound, Anglosaxon mære = *finis*, *limes*, Old-norse mæri = *terminus*.
- mangle*. 1) Verb: from the Latin mancus, Medieval-Latin mancare. 2) Substantive, Old-French mangounel, Old-English mangonel (a sling), Medieval-Latin manganellus, from the Greek *μγγωνον*, Old-Highdutch mango, whence the verb of like sound: to roll.
- male*. Adjective and Substantive; Old-French mascle, masle, malle. 2) Adverb prefix, French mal, Latin male.
- marry*. 1) Verb; Old-French marier. 2) Interjection, from Mary = *Maria*.
- march*. 1) Substantive, verb; French marche, marcher. 2) Substantive: marches, Old-French marche, marce (perhaps the same word as No. 1). 3) A month, Old-French Mars, March.
- mate*. 1) Substantive; Hollandish maet, whence the verb of even sound. 2) Verb: to make dead, Old-French mater, matir from mat, Medieval-Latin mattus, dead.
- match*. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon maca, Old-norse maki = *consors*, whence the verb of even sound. 2) French mèche.
- mass*. 1) Substantive; Old-French masse. 2) Anglosaxon mässe, mässe.
- mast*. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon mäst Fem. = *esca*. 2) Anglosaxon mäst, Masculin.
- mace*. 1) Substantive; Old-French mace, mache. 2) French and Latin macis.
- make*. 1) Verb; Anglosaxon macjan. 2) Substantive; Anglosaxon maca = match.
- main*. 1) Substantive: in compounds (mainland, main-sea), Anglosaxon mægen = *vis*, *robur*. 2) In compounds like mainprise, maintain, Old-French main.
- may*. 1) Verb; Anglosaxon mæg. 2) Substantive: a month, French mai.
- mole*. 1) Substantive; Hollandish mol, molworp, Old-norse moldvarpa, compare English moldwarp. 2) A mark, Anglosaxon māl. 3) A dam, French mole, Latin moles.
- mother*. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon mōdor. 2) Lees, Danish mudder, compare the Highdutch moder.
- moss*. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon meós, Latin muscus. 2) A bog, Middle-Highdutch mosz, Old-Highdutch mes, Danish mose.
- moor*. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon mōr = *palus*, *inculta terra*. 2) French Maure. 3) Verb: to cast anchor, compare French amarrer, Anglosaxon meoring — *obstaculum* and amerran = *impedire*.
- mood*. 1) Substantive; French mode, Latin modus. 2) Anglosaxon mōd = *mens*, *animus*.
- mould, mold*. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon molde = *pulvis*, *terra*. 2) French moule, Latin modulus. 3) Perhaps belongs to No. 1, compare multrig, Lowdutch mulstrig.

- mow.** 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon *mûga*, *mûva* = *acervus*, whence the verb. 2) Subst., French *moue*. 3) Verb, Anglosaxon *mávan*.
- Nick.** 1) Substantive: Old-norse *nikr*, Anglosaxon *nicor*, *monstrum marinum*. 2) Substantive; Anglosaxon *nicljan* = *currare*. 3) Substantive: right time; verb; to meet with, whence *nicker*, Old-norse *hnickia*, *raptare*, *hnickr*, *dolus*, *apprehensio violenta*.
- net.** 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon *nett*, *nete*. 2) Adjective; Old-French *net*, *nat*, Latin *nitidus*.
- neat.** 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon *neát*, *pecus*. 2) Adjective; nice Old-Highdutch *niotsam*.
- nap.** 1) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon *hnäppjan*, *dormitare*. 2) Anglosaxon *hnoppa*, *villus*. 3) Substantive: a gnarl, perhaps the same word, but compare Anglosaxon *cnäpp*, *jugum*; Old-norse *hnappr*, *globulus*, *caput*.
- Lime.** 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon *lîm*. 2) Anglosaxon *lind*, compare English *lind*, *linden*; Old-English also *lyne*.
- light.** 1) Subst., Verb; Anglosaxon *leóht*, *lîht*; *leóhtan*, *lîhtan*. 2) Adjective; Anglosaxon *liht*, whence the verb; Anglosaxon *alihtan*, *desilire*. The verb *lighten* belongs to No. 1, the same verb to No. 2. Here belongs also *lights*, the lungs of a beast.
- list.** 1) Substantive; together with the corresponding verb; Old-French *liste*, Medieval-Latin *lista*, Old-Highdutch *lista*; whence the French *lisiere*. 2) Old-French *lice*, *liche*; whether the same word? 3) verb: else also *lust*, Anglosaxon *lystan*.
- lie.** 1) Verb; Anglosaxon *licjan*. 2) Anglosaxon *leógan*.
- lent.** 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon *lencten*. 2) Adj.; slow (B. JONS.). French *lent*.
- left.** 1) Preterite and Participle from *leave*. 2) Adj.; compare Anglosaxon *lêft*, *inanis*, with *lêfan*, *debilitare*, *lêf* = *debilis*, compare Latin *laevus*.
- let.** 1) Verb: to hinder, Anglosaxon *letjan*, *lettan*, *tardare*. 2) to allow, Anglosaxon *lætan*, *sinere*, *permittere*.
- lee.** 1) Substantive; Old-French *lie*. 2) The windless side, dialectic *lew*; whether *lest*, Latin *lovis*? compare Lowdutch *lêg* = *bad*.
- lean.** 1) Adjective; Anglosaxon *læne*. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon *hlinjan*, *hleonjan* (Latin *inclinare*).
- leave.** 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon *leáf*, *permissio*. 2) Verb; Old-norse *leifa*, *relinquere* (Anglosaxon *lêfan*, *permittere*). 3) to pick out, Old-French *lever*, *liever*.
- league.** 1) Substantive; French *ligue*. 2) Portugese and Spanish *le-gua*, Gallic *leuca*.
- lease.** 1) Verb; to glean, Anglosaxon *lësan*. 2) to let for a term (with the *s* hard), Old-French *laissier*, *laisier*. 3) leasing = *liea*, Anglosaxon *leásung* from the verb *leásjan*, *mentiri*.
- lap.** 1) Substantive; verb: to enwrap, Anglosaxon *lappa*, *fimbria*. 2) to lick, Anglosaxon *lappjan*, *lapjan*.
- last.** 1) Adjective and Adverb; Anglosaxon *lätēmost*, *latōst*. 2) Substantive; Anglosaxon *hlāst*. 3) Verb; Anglosaxon *gelæstan*, *continuare*.
- lath.** 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon *latta*. 2) A district, Anglosaxon *lād* (Bosw.).

- lake.** 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon lacu. 2) a pigment, French laque, Persian lak.
- lay.** 1) Preterite from lie, Anglosaxon lāg. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon lecgan. 3) Substantive: a song, Old-French lai, Cymric llais, a sound. 4) Adjective: worldly, Old-French lai, *laicus*.
- lock.** 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon locc, *cirrus*. 2) Substantive, verb; Anglosaxon loc belonging to lūcan.
- loom.** 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon lōma, *suppeller*. 2) A sort of bird, Danish lomme. 3) Adjective: fresh (of the wind) compare Old-English lome = frequently (PIERS PLOUGHMAN 439), Anglosaxon gelōme, *frequenter*; gelōmelic, *frequens*. 4) Verb: to come in sight (of ships), to appear bigger; perhaps belongs to No. 3 [*liman = crescere?*].
- load.** 1) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon hladan, hlād, *onus*. 2) Substantive, whence loadstone, loadstar, Old-English lodesterre, a vein (in a mine), Anglosaxon lādu, *iter, canalis*, Old-Highdutch leita, compare lādman, *ductor*.
- low.** 1) Adjective, Adverb and verb; Old-norse lāg, *locus depressus*, Hollandish laag Adj. 2) Substantive: flame, Anglosaxon lēge, lŷge, Old-norse log, Danish lue. 3) in names of places: a hill, dam, compare Bedlow (also lowe), Anglosaxon hlæv, hlāv, *collis, agger*. 4) Verb; Anglosaxon hlōvan.
- Rime.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon hrīm, also rim. 2) a chink, Latin rima. 3) Alongside of rhyme, Anglosaxon rīm, *numerus*; Old-French rime, Cymric rhimyn.
- ring.** 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon bring, hrinc. 2) Anglosaxon hringan, *campanam pulsare*.
- repair.** 1) Verb, Substantive; French réparer. 2) Verb, Substantive: refuge, Old-French repairier, repairer; repaire, repere, Latin repatriare.
- rest.** 1) Substantive, verb; Anglosaxon rest, rāst, *quies*; restan, *quiescere*. 2) Subst., verb; Old-French reste, rester.
- resent.** 1) Participle from resend. 2) Verb, Old-French ressentir.
- rear.** 1) Substantive; Old-French rier, riere, Latin retro. 2) Adjective: (also spelt rare) half raw, Anglosaxon hrêre, *crudus*. 3) Verb, to bring up, Anglosaxon ræran. 4) In the Substantive: rearmouse, fluttermouse, Anglosaxon hrêremūs, the verb hrêran, *agitare* is at the root.
- rank.** 1) Substantive, verb; Old-French renc, Cymric rhenge. 2) Adject.; Anglosaxon ranc, *superbus, foecundus*. 3) Perhaps belonging to the Latin rancidus, rancor, like the English rancid?
- rally.** 1) Verb; French rallier. 2) French railler.
- rape.** 1) Substantive; Latin rapa. 2) Compare the Hollandish and Lowdutch rapen, Shwedish rappa, belonging to the Latin rapere. 3) Division of a county in Sussex?
- rash.** 1) Adjective; Anglosaxon rāsh, Old-norse rōskr, Danish rask, whence the verb of like sound; compare Old-norse raska, *loco movere*, Anglosaxon rāscjan, *vibrare*. 2) Substantive; Old-French rasche, compare the Provençal rascar, as it were *rasicare*. 3) A sort of cloth, French ras, from Arras. 4) Adjective; provin-

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cial, dry (from corn, which easily falls out), compare the High-dutch *raesch*, *roesch* = harsh, from hard.

race. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon *ræs*, *impetus*, Old-norse *râs*, *cursus*. 2) French *race*.

rack. 1) Subst., verb; belonging to the Anglosaxon *ræcan*. 2) Subst.: abbreviation from *arrack*. 3) Thin clouds, mists; compare Old-norse *rak*, *humor*; *raki*, *mador*; Anglosaxon *racu*, rain. 4) Anglosaxon *hracca*, *occiput*.

ray. 1) Substantive, verb; Old-French *rais*, *rait*, *rai*; *raier*, *raier*. 2) Substantive: a sort of fish, French *raie*, Latin *raja*. 3) Abbreviation from the Old-French *arrai*, *arroi*, English *array*.

rain. 1) Substantive, verb; Anglosaxon *rēgen*; *rēgnan*. 2) Raindeer, Anglosaxon *hrân*, *hræn*, *capreolus*, English also called *rane*.

rail. 1) Substantive: night-rail, Anglosaxon *hrägel*, *vestmentum*. 2) Low-Saxon *regel*. 3) A sort of fowl, French *râle*, from the verb *râler*. 4) Verb: to jeer, French *railler*; else, English *rally*.

rock. 1) Substantive, Old-norse *rockr*, *colus*. 2) Old-French *roce*, *roche*, Modern-French *roc*. 3) Verb; compare Anglosaxon *reócan*, *exhalare*, *vacillare*, Old-norse *riúkandi*, *fumans*, *vacillans*.

roe. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon *râh*, *râ*. 2) Old-norse *hrogn*.

row. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon *râv*. 2) Verb, Anglosaxon *rôvan*.

rut. 1) Substantive; Old-French *ruit*, Modern-French *rut*, whence the corresponding verb, Latin *rugitus*. 2) The track of wheels; compare the Old-norse *rôta*; or, from the Old-French *rote*, *rute* = Latin *rupta*? 3) To throw (whence provincially in Cheshire, Substantive: the beating of the waves), compare Old-norse *rôt*, *motio violenta*.

rush. 1) Anglosaxon *risce*, *rix* (Latin *ruscus*?). 2) Verb; compare the Anglosaxon *hrysc*, *hryscja*, *irruptio*; *hryscjan*, *vibrare*.

rue. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon *rûde*, French *rue*. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon *hreóvan*, *ejulare*, *dolere*; whence *rueful*, from the Anglosaxon subst. *hreóv*, *dolor*.

b) Words with initial Liplatters.

Pine. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon *pinn*, *pin*, Latin *pinus*. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon *pín*; *pínan*, *pínjan* = *cruciare*, Old-French *peine*, *paine*, *poene*; *peiner* &c.

pile. 1) Substantive; French *pile*, Latin *pila* (VIRGIL.) (*pīla*), perhaps identical with No. 3. 2) Old-norse *pīla*, *sagitta*, Latin *pīlum*. 3) Anglosaxon *pīl*, *sudes*, French *pile*, Latin *pila*. 4) Hair, mostly collective: hairy surface, Old-French *poil*, *peil*, Latin *pīlus*; in cross and pile, French *croix et pile*, *pile* denotes the side of the coin whereupon the coat of arms stands.

pill. 1) Verb: plunder, Old-English *pile* (ROB. OF BRUNNE), Old-Scottish *pille*, *peile*, French *pillier* (compare the Latin *expilare*, *compilare*). 2) To shell; otherwise *peel*, Old-French *poiler*, *peiler*, *peler*, Latin *pīlare*. 3) Substantive; from the Latin *pīla*, French *pillule*.

pūch. 1) Substantive, verb; Old-English *pik*, Anglosaxon *pic*, Latin *pix*. 2) Height, Old-French *pic*. 3) Verb; Anglosaxon *pyccan*, *pungere*. Old-English *picchen*, allied to *pick*.

- pen.** 1) Subst., verb; Old-French *penne*, *pene*, Old-norse *penni*; on the other hand Anglosaxon *pinn*. 2) Substantive, verb; compare *pinfold*, Anglosaxon *on-pinnjan*, *recludere repagulo remoto*; Old-English *pynnen* = to bolt.
- perch.** 1) Substantive; French *perche*, Latin *perca*, on the other hand, Anglosaxon *bears*. 2) Substantive, verb: (of birds), Old-French *perche*: *percher*, Latin *pertica*.
- pan.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *panne*. 2) Verb: to join together, agree, perhaps from the Cymric *pannan*, to line (a dress), Anglosaxon *pan*, Latin *pannus*?
- pall.** 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon *pell*, *päll*, Latin *pallium*, Old-French *palle*, silk or cotton stuff. 2) To make or turn stale, Old-French *pale*, *palle* = blême.
- pale.** 1) Subst.: Anglosaxon *pal*, Latin *palus*. 2) Adj., Subst.; Old-French *pale*, *palle*.
- partisan.** 1) Subst.; French *partisan*. 2) A sort of weapon, French *pertuisane* from the Old-French *pertuiser*; according to Diez p. 253. perhaps derived from the last.
- page.** 1) Subst.; French *page*. 2) French *page* (*raider*).
- pawn.** 1) Subst., verb; Old-French *pan*; *paner* = *prendre des gages*, Old-norse *pantre*; compare the Lowdutch *pennen*. 2) In chess, also *peon*, French *pion*, Italian *pedone*. 3) Peacock, Old-French *paon*, *poon*.
- port.** 1) Subst., Old-French *port*, Latin *portus*. 2) Old-French *porte*, Latin *porta*. 3) A sort of wine, abridged from *Oporto*. 4) Subst., verb; Old-French *port*, *portement*; *porter*.
- pound.** 1) Subst.: Anglosaxon *pund*. 2) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon *pyndan*, Old-English Subst.: *pondfold* = *pinfold*. 3) Verb; Anglosaxon *punjan*, *conterere*.
- punch.** 1) Verb; Italian *punzar*, *punchar*, compare French *poinçon*, North-English *punchion*, an awl; English *puncheon*, a thorn, also a tub (the punched; that is, tapped). 2) Verb: to strike with the fist; Subst.: a blow with the fist; possibly the same? 3) Subst.: a foreign word, according to some from *palepuntz*, a beverage in Surat, according to others from the Indian *panscha* = five, a beverage of five ingredients. 4) Adj. and Subst.: also *punchy**); Jackpudding, of unclear origin, unless the Jackpudding has his name from the drink.
- plight.** 1) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon *plihtan*, *periculo exponere*, *spondere*; *pliht*, *periculum*. 2) Verb, Subst.; compare the Old-High-dutch *vlehtan*, Latin *plectere*, Celtic *plega*.
- plat.** 1) Verb, Subst.; otherwise *plait*, allied to the foregoing. 2) Adj., Subst.; Old-French *plat*, Swedish *platt*.
- prune.** 1) Subst.; Old-French *prune*. 2) Verb; Old-English *proinen*, Old-Scottish *prunze*, compare the French *provigner*, from the Latin *propaginare*, whence in English also *provine*.
- Bill.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *bile*, *rostrum*, Old-English *bile*. 2) An-

*) Note by the translator: I do not think there can be this doubt about the origin of "punchy". I apprehend that it is mistakenly written for "paunchy", that is, having a predominance of the abdomen.

- glosaxon** bill, *ensis*; compare the Highdutch beil. 3) Compare the Highdutch unbill, billig. 4) List, reckoning, in Old-English a lettery (CHAUCER), French billet.
- bittern.** 1) Subst.; from the Anglosaxon biter, bitter. 2) A kind of bird, French butor.
- beetle.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon bêtél, býtel and biótul, beótel, *malleus*; whence the verb to overhang, compare beótan, *minari*. 2) Anglosaxon bôtel and bítel, *blatta* from bítan. In bêtél both substantives touch each other.
- bark.** 1) Subst., verb; Old-norse Subst.: bórkr and verb barka, *cutem induere, cortice tingere*; birkja, *decorticare*. 2) Anglosaxon beorcan, *latrare*, whence borejan.
- bass.** 1) Subst.; Medieval-Latin bassus. 2) (In a church) perhaps nothing else than the Anglosaxon bást, *cortex tiliæ*; in North-English the bast is thus called; in Cumberland dry rushes are called thus. 3) Verb: to kiss (MORE), compare the French baisier, Latin basiare, else the English buss.
- bore.** 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon bor, *scalprum*; borjan, *terebrare*. 2) Preterite of bear, Anglosaxon bār.
- borne.** 1) Subst.; French borne, see Dieffenbach, Dictionary I. 300. 2) Participle from bear, Anglosaxon boren. 3) (often in the names of places), Scottish burn, Anglosaxon byrna, *torrens*.
- box.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon box, Latin buxus. 2) Anglosaxon bux, box, *pyxis* (both words denote originally the same thing). 3) Verb, Subst.; Danish baxe, Swedish baxas; belonging to the Highdutch pochen, bochen, Swedish boka.
- boot.** 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon bôt, Old-English bote, *compensatio, reparatio*, Gothic botan. 2) Subst., verb; Old-French botte.oute. 3) Old-English boat, Anglosaxon bāt, *linter*.
- bound.** 1) Verb, Subst.; Old-French bondir, bundir, bond. 2) Preterite and Participle from bind, Anglosaxon band, bundon, bunden. 3) Subst., verb; compare the English boundary, Medieval-Latin bonna, bunda, *bonnarium*, Old-French bonne, bone, also bodne.
- bull.** 1) Subst.; compare Anglosaxon bulluca, *ritulus*; Lowdutch bulle; Old-norse boli, *taurus*. 2) (Papal), Anglosaxon bull, Latin bulla.
- burden.** 1) Subst.; = burthen, Anglosaxon byrðen, *onus*. 2) Chorus (singing), Old-English burdoun, Old-French bourdon. Bass; compare bourdonner. 3) Obsolete: Pilgrims staff; Old-English also burdoun, Old-French bourdon.
- but.** 1) Subst., verb; French bout, aboutir. 2) Participle, Anglosaxon bûtan.
- budge.** 1) Verb; French bouger. 2) Subst.: prepared lambshide; whence budget, a bag &c., Old-French boge, bouge, Latin bulga.
- blow.** 1) Subst.; from Anglosaxon bleóvan, *ferire*. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon blávan, *flare*. 3) Subst.; from the Anglosaxon blôvan, *florere*.
- brim.** 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon bremme, brymme, *margo*. 2) Dialectically, Anglosaxon brim, *unda, mare*. 3) Adj.: obsolete, instead of breme, Anglosaxon brême. *celeher*.
- breeze.** 1) French brise, Italian brezza. 2) Anglosaxon briosa, *tabanus*.

- broil.* 1) Subst.; belongs to the French brouiller; compare the Italian broglio. 2) Verb; Cymric brwlio, brwlian, compare the Swiss brägelu, prägeln, to cook.
- Fell.* 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon fēll. 2) Old-norse fell, *mons.* 3) An open field, thought to be abridged from the Anglosaxon fild, fēld. 4) Adj., Subst.; Anglosaxon fell, *crudelis* and *ira.* 5) A mouse-trap (see HALLIWELL s. v.), Anglosaxon feall, *decipula.* 6) Verb; Anglosaxon fyllan, fellan, *prosternere.* 7) Preterite from fall, Anglosaxon feóll.
- fair.* 1) Adj.; also Adverb and Subst.; Anglosaxon fäger. 2) Subst.; Old-French foire, feire, fere.
- far.* 1) Adj. and Adverb; Anglosaxon feorr. 2) Subst.: a pig, Anglosaxon fearh, compare Old-English farrow.
- fold.* 1) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon fealdan, *plicare*; feald, *plica*; whence the adjective termination -fold, Anglosaxon -feald, -*plex.* 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon fulud, fald.
- full.* 1) Adj., Adverb and Subst.; Anglosaxon full, *plenus.* 2) Verb; Old-English fullen, compare Anglosaxon fullere, English fuller, Latin fullo, French fouler.
- fry.* 1) Subst.; Old-norse fræ, frio, Gothic fraiv, Old-French fraye. 2) Verb, Subst.; French frire, Latin frigère. 3) Subst.: sieve?
- Vice.* 1) Subst.; Old-French vice, visce, Latin vitium. 2) Old-French vis, viz. 3) Sometimes abridged from advice, French avis. 4) Prefix, Latin vice.
- veil.* 1) Verb; instead of veil, Old-French voile, veile = *velum.* 2) Old-French avaler, avaller = *baisser.* 3) Vails; Subst.; from the Old-French valoir, valeir, properly aid, relief.
- vaunt.* 1) Subst. = van, from the Old-French avant. 2) Verb; Old-French vanter, venter, from the Latin vanus.
- Wise.* 1) Adj.; Anglosaxon vis. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon vîse.
- wight.* 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon viht. 2) The Island, Anglosaxon Viht = *Vectis.* 3) Adj.; Old-Scottish wicht, seems to belong to the Old-norse vígr, *bellicosus* (compare Anglosaxon vîh, víg = *pugna*). In the Old-English we also find wight written instead of weight, white and witch.
- well.* 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon vella, vylla, *fons*; and vellan, vyl-lan, *ebullire.* 2) Adverb; Anglosaxon vëla, vël, *bene.*
- weed.* 1) Subst.: now commonly in the plural, Anglosaxon væd, *vestimentum.* 2) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon veód, *herba*; veódjan, *eruncare.*
- wax.* 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon veax, vāx, *cera.* 2) Verb; Anglosaxon veaxan.
- wort.* 1) Anglosaxon vyrt, virt, vert, vart, *herba, radix.* 2) Anglosaxon virt, veort, vert, *brasium, mustum.*
- wood.* 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon vudu. 2) Adj.; Anglosaxon vòd, *furius.*
- whittle.* 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon hvitle. *cultellus.* 2) Anglosaxon hvítel, *pallium.*

c) Words with initial tooth-letters.

- Till.** 1) Verb; Anglosaxon *tiljan*, *studere*, *colere terram*, *procurare*, *computare*. Whether does till, a money-drawer, belong here? 2) Preposition and conjunction; Anglosaxon *til*, *ad*, *donec*.
- tick.** 1) Verb, also substantive (of a clock), Hollandish *tikken*, Low-dutch *ticken*. 2) Subst.; Hollandish *teek*, Lowdutch *têkebock*, Middle-Highdutch *zecke*, French *tique*. 3) Old-Highdutch *ziecha*, Middle- and Modern-Highdutch *zieche*, Cymric *tic*, *ticcyn*, English *ticken*. 4) Subst., verb; belongs to ticket?
- tire.** 1) Verb, to rush down (upon something) to pluck (of a bird of prey) to touse, belongs to the Anglosaxon *terjan*, *tirjan*, *vezare*, *irritare*, and *tëran*, *lacerare*, *scindere*, English *tear*, to which belong the Highdutch *zerren* and *zehren*, perhaps under the influence of the French *tirer*, of the same origin; from the notion of pulling that of fatiguing has been developed: to make and be tired. 2) Subst., verb; else *attire*, Anglosaxon *tiër*, *apparatus*, *ordo*, Old-Highdutch *ziari*, Middle-Highdutch *ziere*; *ziarjan*. Compare Old-norse *týr*, *fama praeclara*, Anglosaxon *tír*. *týr*, *splendor*, *decus*.
- tense.** 1) A temporal form, Old-French *tens*, *tans*. 2) Stretched, tight, Latin *tensus*.
- tarry.** 1) Verb; In this verb the Anglosaxon *terjan*, *tirigan*, *vezare*, *irritare*, Old-French *tariër*, *tarioier* meets with the Old-French *targier*, *tarjer*, from the Latin *tardus*; in Old-English *targen* is found for it (ROMANCE OF OTUEL p. 79). 2) Adj., from *tar*, Anglosaxon *tëru*, *pix fluida*.
- tart.** 1) Adj.; Anglosaxon *teart*, *asper*. 2) Subst.; French *tarte*, *tourte*, Medieval-Latin *torta*.
- tap.** 1) Verb, subst.; Middle-Highdutch *tappe*, *paw*, Old-French *taper*; *tape*. 2) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon *täppa*, Hollandish *tap*, Old-norse *tappr*, *täppan*, *tappjan*, Old-norse *tappa*.
- ton.** 1) Subst.: a measure or weight, also *tun*, Anglosaxon *tunne*, Old-French *tone*, *tonne*. 2) French *ton*.
- toll.** 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon *toll*, *vectigal*, *privilegium telonium dictum*; Old-norse *tolla*, *tributum imponere*, *pendere*. 2) Verb; to take away (a law term); whence Subst.: *toll*, Latin *tollere*, Medieval-Latin *tolta*, *breve quo lis tollitur e curia baronis*. 3) Verb, Subst.; of a bell. In Old-English *tollen*, *tolen* occurs in the meaning of draw, figuratively to incite. Perhaps it is wrong to think of the Latin *tollere*. Compare Old-norse *tolla*, *haerere*, *cohuerere*; or may we think of *tol-cettan*, *titillare*?
- trump.** 1) Subst., verb; Old-English *trumpen* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN), Old-norse *trumba*, *tympnum*, Old-Highdutch *trumba*, Middle-Highdutch *trumbe*. 2) Subst.; in cards, French *triomphe*.
- Die.** 1) Verb, Old-norse *deyja*, *mori*. 2) Commonly *dye*, Anglosaxon *deagian*, *tingere*. 3) Subst.; Old-English also *dee*, French *dé*, Italian *dado*.
- defile.** 1) Verb, Subst.; French *défiler*, *défilé*. 2) Anglosaxon *fýlan*, *inquinare*.

- dear.** Adj. and Subst.; Anglosaxon *deorē*, *diōr*, *dȳre*. 2) Noxious, Old-English verb *deren* = to hurt, injure, Anglosaxon *derjan*, *nocere*.
- dam.** 1) Subst., verb; Old-norse *dammr*, *alluvies*, Anglosaxon *deman*, *obtulare*, Gothic *faur-dammjan*. 2) Mother, especially of brutes, Old-French *dame*, Latin *domina*.
- date.** 1) Subst.; French *date*. 2) A sort of fruit, Provençal *datil*, French *datte*, *dactylus*.
- down.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *dūn*, *mons*, to which belongs the particle *down*, compare Anglosaxon *ādūne* and *ofdūne*, *deorsum*. 2) Light hair, Old-norse and Lowdutch *dūn*.
- Thus.** Adverb; Anglosaxon *pus*, *sic*. 2) Subst.; incense, Latin *thus*.
- thrum.** 1) Verb; to play badly (an instrument), jingle, Old-norse *pruma*, *anhelare*, *intonare*. 2) Subst.; (the end of yarn cut off from the weft); verb: to warp, Old-norse *prōm*, *margo*, Old-Highdutch, Middle-Highdutch *drum*, Lowdutch *drom*, *drōm*, *drām*, *draum*, *drōmt*.
- thrush.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *prysce*, Old-Highdutch *droscā*, *droscela*. 2) Pustules, also spavin (inflammation of the feet of horses); perhaps belonging to the Anglosaxon *priscan*, *ferire*, *percutere*.
- See.** 1) Subst.; benefice of a bishop, Old-French *sed*, *sied*, *siez*, *se*. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon *sēon*. 3) Subst.; Old-English instead of sea, Anglosaxon *sæ*.
- seam.** 1) Subst.: fat, Anglosaxon *seim* (BOSWORTH), Old-norse *seimr*, *ductile quid*, Lowdutch *sēm*. 2) Subst.; verb, Anglosaxon *seām*, *sutura*. 3) a measure (8 bushels of corn), provincial, a horses load, Anglosaxon *seām*, *onus*, *sarcina jumentaria*, Old-Highdutch *soum*.
- seal.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *sēolh*, *phoca*. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon *sigel*, Gothic *sigljō*, *sigillum*; Anglosaxon *sigeljan*, Gothic *sigljan*, *obsignare*.
- sew.** 1) Verb; Anglosaxon *sivjan*, *seovjan*, *suvan*. 2) Verb; alongside of sue, to follow, pursue, Old-English *sewen*, *suwen*, Old-French *sevre*, *seure*, Modern-French *suivre*. 3) Verb; to let down (a pond &c.), whence the Subst. sewer, Old-French *sewiere*, *seuwiere*; on the other hand sewer, Old-Scottish *sewar*, a carver, is perhaps originally nothing else than the Old-English *suer*, that is follower, adherent, servant (THE CREED OF PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 459.), and Palsgrave wrongly explains „I sewe at meate“ by „je taste“, which certainly might belong to the obligations of the officer, called a sewer. The dish of minced flesh, which Gower calls *sewe* (see LYNDSEY Poet. Works ed. Chalmers 3. p. 461.), might be named from the Old-French *soef*, *soeve*, Latin *suavis*, or might be the broth, which in Cymric was called *sŷg*, *sŷdd*; Anglosaxon *sogoða*, *succus*.
- sallow.** 1) Subst.: a sort of tree, Anglosaxon *salig*. 2) Adj.; Anglosaxon *salu*, *fuscus*, *niger*.
- sage.** 1) Subst.; French *sauge*, Anglosaxon *salvige*. 2) Adject. and Subst.; Old-French *sage*, *saige*, *sapiens*. 3) North-English subst.; for saw, Anglosaxon *sage*, *serra*.
- sack.** 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon *sacc*, *saccus*. 2) Plundering, verb:

to plunder, Old-French *sac*, probably belonging to No. 1. Compare Diez, Dictionary p. 300. 3) Subst.: a sort of wine, whence the Old-English *sack-posset* and *sack-whey* in Devon, French *sec*, Italian *secco*.

some. 1) Indeterminate pronoun; Anglosaxon *sum*. 2) In the formula *some and all* (HALLIWELL s. v. *sum*), *all and some*, *some answers* to the Old-French *somme*, *sume*, *some*, Modern-English *sum*, so that it might be formed after the French *somme toute*. The Old-English has *som*, *sum*, *some*, and uses it also adjectively. Schropshire *som* and *half Warwikshire al so* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. p. 5). Compare: And of his mynde he shewed me *all and some* (SKELTON I. p. 39.). Of all good praiers God send him *sum* (IB. p. 69.). The formula stands adverbially for completely.

sole. 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon *sole*, *soleu*. Hence springs the name of a fish *sole*, French *sole*, Italian *soglia*. 2) Adj.; Old-French *sol*, *sul*, *seul*, *solus*.

sod. 1) Old preterite and participle from *seethe*, Anglosaxon *seað*, *sudon*; *soden*. 2) Subst.; Hollandish *zode*, *zood*, *zoë*, Lowdutch *sôde*.

soil. 1) Subst.; Old-French *soel*, *suel*, *sueil*, Modern-French *seuil*. 2) Subst., verb, Old-French *soil*, a slough, provençal *solh*, dirt, whence the verb *souiller*; mixed with the Anglosaxon *sol*, *volutabrum*, *sordes*; *syljan*, *foedare*, Gothic *bi-souljan*, *inquinare*, whence the Romance forms are derived. 3) Verb: to lead a horse to graze, Old-French *saoler*, Modern-French *soûler*.

sound. 1) Adj.; Anglosaxon *sund*. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon *sôn*, *sonus*, Old-French *son*, *sun*; *soner*, *suner*, *sonner*, Old-English *sounen*. 3) Subst.; Anglosaxon and Old-norse *sund*, *mare*, *vadum*. The same Anglosaxon word lies at the root of the meaning, *swimmingbladder*, since *sund* in Anglosaxon and Old-norse also means *swimming*; Old-norse *sund-uggar*, *pinnae piscium*; *sund-færi*, *cauda et pinnae piscium*; *synda*, *nare*, *natare*. The meanings of casting the soundingline, lean not on the French *sonde*, *sonder*, but the Romance words, Span., Port., Ital. *sonda*, French *sonde* — *sondar*, *sonder* themselves are descended from the Germanic *sund*. Anglosaxon *sundgerd* and *sundline* denote the rod and line for measuring the depth of the sea, like the English *sounding line*. *Sound*, as the name of the cuttle-fish, may have the same origin. 4) Subst.: *swoon*, even in the *Vicar of Wakef* c. XI, belongs to the Old-norse *sundl*, *sundli*, *vertigo*, verb *sundla*, *vertigine turbare*, alongside of the subst. *svim*, verb *svima*; compare the Anglosaxon *svîma*, *vertigo*, *deliquium*, along with *svânjan*, *evanescere*, according to Sommer also *âsvunan*, *deficere animo*.

sow. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *sugu*, *sus*. 2) Verb: *sōw*, Anglosaxon *sāvan*.

smelt. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *smelt*, *smylt*, *sardina piscis*, *salmo eperlanus*. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon *smeltan*, *smyltan*, *liquefacere*. 3) Participle; alongside of *smelled*, from *smell*, with which is compared the Lowdutch *smölen*, to smoke, *smæl*, the reek of damp stuff.

smack. 1) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon *smāc*, *smācc*, *sapor*, *gustus*; *smec-*

- can, gustare**; Old-norse smacka, the same; alongside thereof the verb, subst., Lowdutch smacken, Middle-Highdutch smackezen Hollandish smakken, (on the other hand the Hollandish smaken) smak, a blow. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon snacc, Old-norse snâkr Hollandish smak, Danish smakke. 3) Subst.; Lowdutch smack.
- snow.** 1) Subst.; verb, Anglosaxon snâv, *nix*. 2) Hollandish snaauw Danish snau, perhaps properly a snoutship, compare the Hollandish snaauwen, to snub.
- slough.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon slôg, *volutabrum*, English also sludge slush and slosh. 2) (pronounced slüff) (of snakes, who cast the skin, formerly of beasts generally) scab, in Northern-English also pod, Middle-Highdutch slûch throat, skin of the snake.
- spill.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon spindel, spinl, *fusus*; Hollandish spil compare the Middle-Highdutch spilmâc, Lowdutch spille, Modern-Highdutch spille, spindel. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon spillan, Old-norse spilla, *corrumpere, consumere*, Lowdutch verspillen.
- spoke.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon spâca. 2) Preterite and Participle from speak, Anglosaxon spâc; spocen.
- spright.** 1) Subst.; the same as sprite = spirit. 2) Perhaps confounded with sprit, Anglosaxon spreót, *trudis, contus*; or belonging to sprig, see spray.
- spray.** 1) Subst.; also sprig, Cymric brig = top, but compare also the Anglosaxon sprec, *sarmentum*, Old-norse sprekk, *ramentum*. 2) (of the sea), belongs to the Anglosaxon sprégan, *fundere*; compare the Middle-Highdutch sprôuwen, sprewen, *spargere, made facere*.
- swallow.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon svaleve. 2) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon svêlgan, *svilgan, devorare, imbibere*; Middle-Highdutch swalch -ges, swalc, grudiness, swalken, *crapulari, svelge, vorago*.
- still.** 1) Adj., Adv. and Conj.; Anglosaxon stille, *quietus*; stille, *tacite* Verb; Anglosaxon stillan, *compescere*, also Subst. (poetic); Old-Highdutch stilli, Middle-Highdutch stille. 2) Subst.; Old-norse stilli, *agger, vallus*. 3) Verb; Latin stillare.
- stern.** 1) Adj; Anglosaxon sterne, *severus, asper, rigidus*. 2) Subst (of a ship), Anglosaxon stearn, *gubernaculum*, compare stiór, the same, and steórern, *gubernaculi locus*, as well as stearnsetl, *puppis*. 3) Old-English, Subst.; *stella*, else sterre, Modern-English star, Old-norse stiarna, Anglosaxon steorra.
- stale.** Old-English stele. 1) Subst., (obsolete), Anglosaxon stêl, *caulis, manubrium*. 2) Bait (SHAKESPEARE). These meanings belong to the Anglosaxon stêlan, *surripere, furari*, compare stalu, *furtum* Longobardic astalin, *fraus*. Here too seem to belong the adjective stale = old, worn out; substantively, sour beer, bad woman and as a verb, to wear out, in which the image of the deceitful, spurious, may lie at the root. 3) Verb, Subst.; Danish stalle Swedish stalla, Italian stallare, probably borrowed from the dirtiness of the stable.
- stable.** 1) Adj.; Old-French estable, *stabilis*. 2) Subst.; (in the chase) verb, Old-French estable, Modern-French étable, *stabulum*.
- stud.** 1) Subst.; verb, Anglosaxon studu, *postis, clarus*. Lowdutch stüt (on the other hand stüt). 2) Subst.; formerly also studderie

a large stable; Anglosaxon stôd, *armentum equorum*, Old-Highdutch, Middle-Highdutch stuot, (here belongs steed, Anglosaxon stêda).

scale. 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon scâlu, *lanx*, *trutina*, Medieval-Latin *scala*, *bilanx*, Old-norse skâl, *bilanx* and *patera*, hence in Somersetshire, also: a drinking bowl. 2) Subst.: of a fish, Anglosaxon scealu, *scala*, *putamen*; compare the Old-French escale, escaile, Modern-French écaille, écale, a nutshell; whence the verb. 3) Subst., verb; Old-French eschele, eschiele, Latin *scala*; whence the verb escheller, Italian scalare, Modern-French escalader.

Shackle. 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon scacul, *columbar*, Hollandish schakel, limb of a chain, Modern-Highdutch schake; whence figuratively in Northern-English, the wrist. 2) Stubble; compare shack, right of pasture in winter and to the shattered corn at harvest; it belongs to the Anglosaxon scacan, *quater*, *excutere* and *volare*, Old-norse skaka, *quater*, *agitare*, and denotes properly the battered out and flown away corn. The dialectical verb shack, to rove about, and subst. vagabond, confirms this.

shoal. 1) Adj., Subst.; (compare shallow), belongs to the Old-Highdutch scalljan, to cause to sound, Middle-Highdutch schal, hollow, Modern-Highdutch schâl. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon scôlu, *caterua*, *multitudo*.

shock. 1) Subst.; from the Anglosaxon sceacga, *caesaries*, compare West-English shackled instead of shaggy, Anglosaxon sceacged, *comatus*, Old-norse skeggi, *barbatus*. 2) Subst.; whence the verb, to set corn in shocks, Danish skok, Swedish skock, Middle-Highdutch schoc (60 pieces), Lowdutch schocken. 3) Subst., verb; Here Germanic and French elements mix, Old-Highdutch scoc, Middle-Highdutch schoc, Middle-Highdutch schocken, schoggen, to be in swinging movement, with the Anglosaxon scacan, related to the Old-norse skaka; along therewith the Old-French choque, a stem, choc, a thrust, choquer, to thrust against.

Check. 1) Subst.; Old-French eschac, eschec; to which belongs check, on a Bank, from the Old-French verb eschequer, to divide by lines, like a chessboard (eschequier), compare the Highdutch scheckig, English checky. 2) Verb: to impede, Subst.: hindrance, are likewise taken from the game; compare the Middle-Highdutch schachen, to give check.

chap. 1) Obsolete verb: to deal; Subst.: a dealer, figuratively: companion; compare chapman, Anglosaxon copman, ceáþjan, *emere*, *negotiari*. 2) Subst.: a chink; verb: to come open, seem to belong to the Anglosaxon cippjan, *secare* and to a root cippan; compare Old-norse kippa, *elevare*; kippr, *interstitium loci*.

chase. 1) Subst.; Old-French chasse, casse, Modern-French chásse Latin capsa. 2) Verb, Subst.; Old-French chacier, cacier; Medieval-Latin caciare, Subst. chace, cace, of unclear origin.

Jet. 1) Subst.; French jais, jayet, *gagates*. 2) Verb, Subst.; Old-French jeter, geter; get, giet, *jactus*. In the meaning: a henroost, the French jet seems taken collectively; compare Latin *jactus retis*, all fish caught, French jet d'abeilles, a swarm of bees; jet de voiles, a complete set of sails.

jetty. 1) Subst., French *jetée*. 2) Adj., from the Subst. *jet*.

jar. 1) A large jug or glass vessel with a wide opening; French *jarre*, Provençal, Span., Port. *jarra*; of Arabic origin from *garrah*, a water vessel. 2) Verb; to tick (of the clock) [SHAKESPEARE], Subst. This word points to the French jars, also *jar* (NICOT), Walloon *geâr*, a gander, Breton *garz*; according to Tarbé a verb *jargauder* and *iargauder* is used in Champagne of the gander, which treads the goose with gabble, as if *g* belonged to the root. In Cymric the verb *jar* is rendered by *ysgortio*, *ysgordio*.

d) Words with initial throat-sounds.

Cart. 1) Subst., verb; French *carte*, *charte*. 2) Subst., verb; French *carde*; carder, also *chardon*; *chardonner*, Old-French *escharder*, to scratch up with thistles, from the Latin *carduus*.

cape. 1) Subst.; French *cap* alongside of *chef*, Latin *caput*. 2) Old-French *cape*, *chape*, Old-norse *kâpa*, Medieval-Latin *capa*, *cappa*.

caper. 1) Subst.; French *câpre*, Latin *capparais*. 2) Subst., verb; from the Latin *caper*; compare the French *cabrer* and *cabriole*, *cabrioler*.

case. 1) Subst.; Old-French *cas*, *quas*; *casus*. 2) Subst., verb; Old-French *casse*, *chasse*, Latin *capsa*. 3) Dialectic for because.

compt. 1) Subst., verb; (commonly count), Old-French *conter*, Modern-French *compter*. 2) Adj. (obsolete), Latin *computus*, Old-French *cointe*.

console. 1) Verb, French *consoler*. 2) Subst.; French *console*, from sole, Latin *solea*.

corn. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *corn*, *granum*; whence the verb *corn*. 2) On the feet, Old-French *corn*, *cornu*.

corporal. 1) Subst.; corrupted from the French *caporal*. 2) Adj.; for the more usual *corporeal*, and Subst., Medieval-Latin *corporale*, *palla qua sacrificium tegitur in altari*.

cope. 1) Subst., verb; Old-English *copen*, Medieval-Latin *capa*, *cappa*; *incappare* = *operire*, compare Anglosaxon *cappa*, *cappe*, *pileus*, *cucullus*; see *cape*. 2) Subst.; (SHAKESPEARE), Old-French *cope*, *copel* = *cime*, Anglosaxon *copp*, *culmen*. 3) Verb; commonly construed with *with**, perhaps means originally as much as *chap* or *chop*, *chaffer*, to haggle with any one. In Eastern dialects *cope* is still used for to chop, exchange. Compare English *cope-man* alongside of *chapman*, Anglosaxon *copmann*, *mercator*; an Anglosaxon verb *copjan* (*compilare*?) of dubious meaning, also occurs. All these forms belong to the Gothic *kaupon*, to follow trade.

cob. 1) Subst.: head; little lump of hay (in Oxford), stone (East of England); applied to beasts: a small, strong pony; a seamew, perhaps also: a spider (in cobweb); in a wider meaning: an ungelded horse; further, chieftain (= leader, chief, in Cheshire), hence *cob-swan*, the leading (male) swan &c., seem equally to

* Note by the translator: Whether does "cope with" flow from No. 2, the root meaning being head, as we say to "head", to make head against.

belong the obsolete *cop*, Anglosaxon *copp*, *calix* and *culmen*, Old-Highdutch *koph*, Middle-Highdutch *kopf*, a globular vessel, Breton *cab* = tête, bout, Old-Highdutch *chæpf*, *cacumen*, Cymric *cop* = summit. Compare also Old-friesic *kop*, Lowdutch *kop*, a tree. 2) The verb *cob*, to strike; dialectically Subst. blow, belongs on the other hand to the Old-norse *kubba*, *amputare*, *perfringere*. Compare also the Swedish *kuffa*, *ferire*, *trudere*, English *cuff*.

cost. 1) Subst.; obsolete and dialectic (East of England) rib, Old-French *coste*, Latin *costa*. 2) Verb, Subst.; Old-French *coster*, *couster*, Latin *constare* and Subst. *cost* = frais, dépense.

count. 1) Subst.; Old-French *cuens*, *conte*, *cunte*, *cumte*, Latin *comes*, -it-is. 2) Verb, Subst.; Old-French *conter*, *cunter*; *conte*.

counter. 1) Subst.; Old-French *conteres*, *conteor*, in the sense of the Modern-French *conteur*. 2) Adv. and Prefix; Old-French *contre*, *cuntre*.

cleave. 1) Verb; Anglosaxon *cleófan*, *clúfan*; Lowdutch *klíwen*. 2) Anglosaxon *clifan* and *clifjan*, *adhaerere*, Lowdutch *klêwen*.

crowd. 1) Subst.: a string instrument, also *croud*, *crouth* in Halliwell, Cymric *crwth*, Medieval-Latin *chrotta*, Old-French *rote*; whence also a verb *crowd*, to fiddle, was in use. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon *creóðan*, *premere*, *premi*; *croda*, *compressio*.

kennel. 1) Subst.; compare channel, Old-French *chenal*, Latin *canalis*. 2) Verb; French *chenil*, Latin *canile*.

kern. 1) Subst. (Irish) soldier. 2) Instead of *quern*, Anglosaxon *cveorn*, *cvyrn*, *mola*.

keel. 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon *ceól*, *carina*, *navis*; Old-norse *kiöll*, *carina*, *navis*; *kiölr*, *carina*, *dorsum montis*. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon *cēlan*, *algere*.

knoll. 1) Verb; Anglosaxon *cnyllan*, *cnellan*, *signum dare campana*; whence Subst.: *knell*, Anglosaxon *cnyll*, *campanae signum*. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon *cnoll*.

Quail. 1) Subst.: a sort of bird, figuratively, a strumpet, Old-French *quaille*, Modern-French *caille*, Medieval-Latin *quaquila*, Hollandish *kwakkel*, *kwartel*. 2) Verb: to despond, belongs to the Anglosaxon *cvelan*, *pati*, *mori* and *cveljan*, *trucidare*, compare English *quell*, *kill*; Old-norse *qvöl*, *cruciatu*; *qvalrædi*, *angor*, *cruciatu*; *qvelja*, *torquere*; *qvilli*, *infirmia valetudo*. 3) Verb: to curdle (of milk), particularly dialectically in East-English, French *cailler*, Italian *quagliare*, *cagliare*, Latin *coagulare*.

Gore. 1) Subst.: curdled blood, Anglosaxon *gor*, *tabum*. 2) Verb: to but with the horn, from the Anglosaxon *gâr*, *hasta*. 3) Here belongs the meaning of a Subst. *gore*, a wedgeshaped piece of cloth let in, a wedgeshaped piece of a field; the Middle-Highdutch *gêre*, means the same, which is derived from the Old-Highdutch *gêr*, Anglosaxon *gâr*, Gothic *gáis*, Latin *gacsum*, *hasta*.

Gum. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *gôma*, Old-norse *gômr*, *palatum*. 2) French *gomme*, Latin *gummi*, *gummi*.

gull. 1) Verb, Subst.; belonging to the Old-norse *gyllinger*, *adulator*, as Adj. *splendidus*; Old-Swedish *gylla*, *decipere*; Old-English *gulle*

- = gay, fine (HALLIWELL). 2) Subst.: a mew; dialectically it means the callow fowl and the gosling. Cymric *gwyllan*.
- gust*. 1) Subst.; Old-norse *gustr*, *gióstr*, *aura frigida*, Anglosaxon *gist*, *procella*, *ventus*. 2) Taste; along with which *gusto* also occurs, Latin *gustus*.
- grin*. 1) Subst.: a trap, Anglosaxon *grin*, *gryn*, *laqueus*. 2) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon *grennjan*, *ringi*; (*grynn*, *odium*, *malum*;) compare Old-norse *grína*, *intentis oculis intueri*.
- ground*. 1) Preterite and Participle from *grind*, Anglosaxon *grand*, *grundon*; *grunden*. 2) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon *grund*, *fundus*, *solum*; *gryndan*, *fundare*.
- Hind*. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *hind*, *cerva*. 2) Anglosaxon *hína*, *domesticus*. 3) Adj.; Anglosaxon *hind-veard*, *posterus*; *hindan*, *post*, *retro*; hinder Adverb and Preposition.
- hip*. 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon *hype*, *hyp*, *hype*; *femus*. 2) Also written *hep*, Anglosaxon *hiópe*, *heópe*, *rosae silvestris bacca*, *rubus*. 3) Interjection, as an invocation. 4) Verb: to *hip*, popular abbreviation of *hypochondriac*.
- hide*. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *hýd*, *cutis*. 2) Verb (derived from the Subst. just named), Anglosaxon *hýdan*, *abscondere*; Old-norse *hýða*, *excoriare*, *flagellare* and *pelles superinduere*; dialectically still in English, to *whip*. 3) Subst.: a measure of land, Anglosaxon *hýd*, Medieval-Latin *hida*, *hyda*, *terrae portio*, *quantum sufficit ad arandum uni aratro per annum*; compare the Old-norse *haudr*, *terra inculta*.
- helm*. 1) Subst. (of a ship), verb; Anglosaxon *healma*, *helma*, *gubernaculum*. 2) Subst.: a helmet, Anglosaxon *hælm*, *galea*.
- hamper*. 1) Subst.; instead of *hanaper*, Medieval-Latin *hanaperium*, from the Anglosaxon *hnæpp*, *calix*. 2) Verb: to *fetter*, *impede*, North-English *beat*; Subst.: *impediment*; compare Old-norse *hampa*, *manibus volvere*, *terere*.
- harrow*. 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon *hereve*, *occa*, Danish *harve*. 2) Verb; obsolete alongside of *harry*, to *worry*, Anglosaxon *herjan*, *hergjan*, *vastare*, *bello premere*, and *herevjan*, *hyrvjan*, *vexare*, *affligere*. 3) Interjection; as a cry for help, also *haro*, an Old-Norman cry of distress, Old-French *haro*, *harou*, *hareu*, *hari*, whence the verb *harier*, *harer* = *harceler*, *provoquer un combat*. The cry is derived from *ha Rous!* that is *ha!* and the name of Duke Rollo. See Du Cange s. v. *haro*. This disputed opinion seems to receive confirmation by the exclamation: *haroll alarome!* quoted by Palsgrave.
- haver*. 1) Subst.; from the verb *have*, Anglosaxon *habban*, *hābban*, *habere*. 2) Oats; (compare *haver-bread*, *haversack*, French *havre-sac*, properly Highdutch *habersack*), Old-norse *hafrar*, Danish *havre*, Old-Saxon *havaro*.
- haggard*. 1) Adj. and Subst.; according to Diez from *hawk* with the termination *ard*, French *hagard*. 2) Subst.; in the meaning *rick-yard* or *stack-yard*: space for hay or cornstocks, perhaps corrupted from *hay-gard*, compare Anglosaxon *geard*, *sepes*, to which belongs the English *garden*; Old-English and Old-Scotch, also *garth*, as still in the North of England, and the English *orchard*.

II. The Elements of the Word. — Assimilation of different words. 213

- hawk.** 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon hafuc, *accipiter*. 2) Verb; compare Lowdutch Subst. hâk, Danish hōkre, belonging to hocken. 3) Verb, Subst.; This word is an expression imitative of the noise.
- holmi.** 1) Subst.: an island in a river, Old-norse hōlmi, Danish Swedish holm, *insula*, Anglosaxon holm, *altum mare* and *insula*. 2) A tree, commonly taken for the evergreen oak, but wrongly, according to Halliwell, who thereby will have only the tree, else called holly, to be understood. The latter is the Hollandish hulst, Old-Highdutch holis, French houx. The form holm, with the change of the *n* into *m*, corresponds to the Anglosaxon hōlen, used for several trees and shrubs (*sambucus*, *aquifolium*, *alnus*), whence cneoholen or holm, English kneeholm, *ruscus*.
- hop.** 1) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon hoppan, *salire*, *saltare*. 2) Subst.; Old-Highdutch hopfo, Middle-Highdutch hopfe, Hollandish hoppe, hop, Medieval-Latin lupa, humlo, Old-norse humall, Danish humle.
- host.** 1) Subst., verb; (SPENSER, SHAKSPEARE), Old-French hoste, oste, Latin hospit-em. 2) Subst.: in the Catholic ritual, Latin hostia. 3) Old-French ost, host, from the Latin hostis.
- hue.** 1) Subst.: colour, Anglosaxon hiv. 2) a cry; a hue and cry, legal pursuit, arrest, Old-French hu, huz along with huee, verb huer from the Interjection hu!

B) Double forms of the same Word.

Among the assimilated words enumerated, as before, many of the same origin have been already cited in different forms. We content ourselves here in general with classifying the English words of this sort which annex different meanings to distinct forms, although the latter occasionally flow into one another, passing over those words in which the different forms have received no essential differences of meaning, as abysm and abyss, guard and ward, guile and wile, sludge, slush, slish &c.

a) Such are those which several contemporary forms, perhaps following one another, in one of the root tongues of English, or different forms of the fundamental word in different tongues serve to support, among which those words are to be disregarded whose different meanings have already given rise to dissimilated forms of another tongue. The following may serve as examples:

outer, opposed to the word *inner*, and to *utter* in the meaning of *extreme*, *complete*, which are based upon two Anglosaxon forms *ūter* and *ŷtra*, but from the same root and of like meaning (*exterior*).

morrow, to-morrow, and *morn*, poetic subst., along with morning, Anglosaxon morgen and morn, *matutinum tempus*.

lance, to throw as a lance; especially, thrust, prick, open with the lancet, and *lanch*, *launch*, to hurl; particularly, to float a vessel, Old-French lancer and lanchier, that is, frapper avec une lance, darder.

- wine* and *vine*, have the allied Anglosaxon *vin* and Latin *vinum*, French *vin*, for fundamental forms.
- wind* and *vent*, likewise lean upon the Anglosaxon *vind* and Old-French *vent*, Latin *ventus*, of like meaning.
- wise*, mostly used now only in compounds, stands alongside of *guise*. The Anglosaxon *vîse*, *modus*, *consuetudo* and Old-French *guise*, Modern-French *guise*, *manière*, *façon*, are the same word.
- why* and *how*, Anglosaxon *hvê*, *hvÿ*, *hvu* (Instrumental from *hva*, *hvât*, *quis*, *quid*), *cur*, *quomodo*.
- waggon* or *wagon*, commonly *waggon*, and *wain*, a carriage, Charles' swain, a constellation, Anglosaxon *vâgen*, *vâgn*, *væn*, *plaustrum*.
- villan*, also *villein*, is by modern Lexicographers distinguished from *villain*, a rascal; both rest upon the Medieval-Latin *villanus*, Old-French *vilain*, *vilein*, *villain*, that is, *laboureur* and *rustre*.
- deploy*, to exhibit (troops), and *display*, to lay out, Old-French *desploier*, with the collateral forms *pleier*, *plier*; compare the Modern-French *déployer* alongside of *déplier*.
- cattle* and *chatel*, moveable possessions, Old-French *catel*, *chatel*; *biens*, *biens mobiliers*.
- convey* and *convoy*, Old-French *convejer*, *convoier*; *conduire*, *accompagner*.
- quaint* and *compt* (obsolete), Old-French *cointe*, Latin *comptus*, *comtus*.
- cross* and *cruise* (by sea), Old-norse *krossa*, *signo crucis notare*, Old-French *crois*, *cruiz*, Old-Highdutch *crûci*, *crûzi*.
- humor*, humidity, has recently been distinguished from *humour*, a frame of mind. In Old-French the terminations *or*, *our*, *eur*, run alongside of each other: *humor*, *-our*, *eur*; but the Latin *humor* is perhaps here regarded alongside of the French form &c.
- b) Other double forms are of a kind that they proceed from one and the same form of the word, and with a difference of meaning are distinguished from one another by a change of vowel or consonant. While the first-named often interchange their forms with one another in Old-English, we still find here the same fundamental form in the older language, with a diversity of meaning. The following are examples:
- milk* and *milch*, are distinguished in sense, but both seem to be related to the Anglosaxon *miluc*. Lowdutch has the Subst. *melk* and the Adj. *melke* alongside of each other.
- mean* and *moan*, Anglosaxon *mænan*, *indicare* and *queri*, *dolere*; Old-English *menen* in both meanings; likewise *bemenen* instead of *signify* and *bemoan*.
- make* was formerly used for companion, consort; *match* expresses the notion of the equal. adequate to another. as well as the abstract notion of a consortment of a pair in marriage; both still exist in *makeless* and *matchless*, of like meaning; Old-norse *maki*, *aequalis* and *conjux*, Anglosaxon *maca*, *consors*, *conjux*. According to Bosworth there was also an Anglosaxon *ge-macca*, which would fit in with the Old-English *macche* = *match*.
- metal*, rarely used figuratively, and *mettle*, only figuratively, come from the Latin *metallum*, French *métal*.

- nib** and **neb**, Anglosaxon nebb, *caput, vultus, os*; compare the Low-dutch nibbe, a beak.
- person** and **parson**, Old-French persone for personne and curé; in Old-English the clergyman is also called persone.
- beacon** and **beckon**, both point to the Anglosaxon beācen, *signum, nutus*, and beācnjan, bēcnjan, *indicare, annuere*.
- flower** and **flour**, point primarily to the Old-French flour; yet it is remarkable that the form flûr is in use in that double meaning: *flores* and *tenuissimum triticum*.
- to**, Preposition and **too**, Adv., answer to the Anglosaxon tō used as a preposition (*ad*) and adverb (*insuper*).
- ton**, fashion, **tone** and **tune**, are borrowed from the same word, Greek τόνος, French ton, Anglosaxon dyne, *tonitru, sonus**), Middle-Highdutch dôn.
- discreet** is distinguished from *discrete*; French discret and Latin discretus, the former of which corresponds in sense with the English discreet.
- sing** and **singe**: like *sving* and *swinge*, are allied in meaning to the Anglosaxon singan, *canere* and sengan, *ustulare*, as well as svingan, *vibrare, flagellare* and svengan, *quassare, jactare*, but dissimilate only the consonant *g* as a guttural and as a dental.
- sauce** and **souse**, Old-French sause, Modern-French sauce, from the Latin salsus.
- scatter** and **shatter**, Anglosaxon scateran, *dissipare*.
- school** and **shoal**, Anglosaxon scōlu, *schola* and *caterva*; Hollandish school, *schola* and *caterva*, scholen, *congregari*; Old-Highdutch schuole, also: meeting.
- stick** and **stitch**, are only apparently dissimilated forms from the Anglosaxon sticjan, *pungere, transfigere* and haerere, the former belonging rather to the Anglosaxon stēcan, *pungere, icere*, and as it has become unfaithful to its origin in conjugation (stung; stung, Anglosaxon stāc; stēcen), rather assimilated to the form stitch. It is otherwise with *pick*, and *pitch*, both coming from the Anglosaxon pyccan, *pungere*; compare Old-norse picka, *frequenter pungere*.
- cap** and **cape**, Anglosaxon cappa, *pileus, cucullus*.
- cot**, otherwise cote and coat, answer to the Anglosaxon cot, *casa*, Old-norse kot, *casa* and at the same time *pectorale*.
- cup** and **cop**, Anglosaxon copp, *calix* and *culmen*.
- kill** and **quell**, Anglosaxon cvēllan, cveljan, *necare, trucidare*, Old-English quellen = to kill.
- glass** and **glaze**, from the Anglosaxon glās, *vitrum*.
- grass** and **graze**, from the Anglosaxon grās, *gramen*; compare grasjan, *gramine vesci*, and other dissimilations.

*) Note by the translator: the connection of these Germanic words with the Greek τόνος seems more than questionable. τόνος, in the sense of the differentiated sound produced by the different degrees of tension of the chord, is an intellectual development of the Hellenic mind; whereas the dyne, din, tonitru, and stun-grou pseems to be onomatopoeitic from a sudden, explosive sound.

c) In conclusion I must mention the peculiar double forms, arising when the verbal root, in the one case, as it presents itself in the infinitive of Romance or Latin words; and alongside of that, the Latin and, less frequently, the Romance participial form of the same verb are employed to form English verbs. The most frequent participial form is that in *ate* (Latin *ātus*), which gives verbs answering to the Latin in *at-are*; yet others also occur. These double forms belong chiefly to verbs compounded with prefixes, and those leaning upon participial forms are peculiar to the modern tongue. Many represent no notional differences, and perhaps are only distinguished by their more or less frequent use. To those scarcely distinguishable in meaning belong, for instance: *immerge* — *immerse*; *incurve* — *incurvate*; *inhume* — *inhumate*; *enounce* — *enunciate*; *enerve* (MILTON) — *enervate*; *announce* — *annunciate*; *administer* — *administrate*; *oblige* — *obligate* (little used); *prejudge* — *prejudicate*; *promulge* (PEARSON) — *promulgate*; *transfund* (BARROW) — *transfuse*; *subduce* — *subduct*; *complane* — *complanate* &c.

Others diverge more decidedly, in part at least: *impregn*; *impregnate*, *infringe* (a contract, a law), and *check*; *infract*, more rarely used. *intone*, *intonate*, the same, collaterally to sound loud, thunder; *incarn*, to cover with flesh; *incarnate*, to humanize; *illum* (formed after the Old-French *alumer*), also figuratively, is more poetic; *illuminate* (also of illumination with colours), to enlighten. *include*, to shut in; *enclose* (*inclose*), from the French participle *enclos*, which has also become a substantive, to fence in; *aspire*, to strive after; *aspirate* (of pronunciation). *predestine*, to determine before hand (generally); *predestinate*, to determine before hand by an immutable resolve (in the dogmatic sense); *transfer*, to remove (to another place), to convey (to a person) &c.; *translate*, (also an official person) or (from one tongue into another); *comprehend*, to include, also to take in (with the understanding); *comprise*, from the French participle *compris*.

In *transmew* (SPENSER) and *transmute* of like meaning, the same infinitive, first in the Old-French from *muer*, and then in the Latin *mutare*, lies at the root.

It is rare that a double participial form produces two verbs, as in the two obsolete *adjute* (Latin *adjutum*) and *adjuvate* (Latin *adjuvatum*, rare); and in *depaint* (French *dépeint*) and *depict* (Latin *depictum*), which are distinguished only by the usage, not in meaning, like the first named.

SECOND SECTION.

THE DOCTRINE OF FORMS.

Phonetics has to do with the **body** of the word according to its material nature. The Doctrine of forms considers the word according to its notional nature and its destination within speech, as conditioned or partly conditioned by the form of the word, and as a **part of speech**.

- 1) We distinguish different parts of speech, or classes of words, which are named according to their predominant destination in the sentence, while they are not precluded from occasionally interchanging their functions in the sentence.

The parts of speech are divided into **Nouns, Verbs and Particles**.

- a) The **noun** names or denotes **objects** given in external reality (concrete objects), or imagined analogously to these (abstract objects), and the **qualities** inherent in them, which by their form or meaning indicate their attributive reference to the objects.

Objects are denoted by **substantives**, the qualities formally referred to them by **adjectives**.

If the object is not named, but merely denoted by a word passing for a **sign** pointing back or away to an object, either a person or a thing, this representative word is termed a **substantive pronoun**.

If the object is determined attributively, not according to a quality inherent in itself according to its nature, but extrinsically, that is, quantitatively, or demonstratively in the amplest sense of the word, this is effected by a **numeral**, an **adjective pronoun** or an **article**.

- b) The **Verb**, or time-word, the essential word of the predicate, whereby a judgment is accomplished, serves in the sentence to express the **activity** of the subject, which falls in the sphere of **Time**, as the subject with its qualities is originally imagined in the sphere of **space**.
- c) The remaining parts of speech are called **particles**, which, although commonly of small outward compass, are not of small import in speech, but essentially contribute to determine the character of the tongue. They are divided into **words of circumstance**, or, **adverbs**; **words of relation**, or **prepositions**; **connecting words**, or, **conjunctions**; and **sounds of emotion**, or, **interjections**.

The **adverb** serves essentially to determine the verb more particularly, with reference to the space, the time, the manner, and the cause and aim of the action. Its further functions in

the sentence flow from this its original destination. The **preposition** stands in an essential relation to the substantive, and determines, in the same aspects as the adverb, the more general character of the case **more nearly and closely**, as, in the absence of case-inflection, it undertakes the function of such inflection. The **conjunction** is the means of expressing the relation of the sentences to one another, coming, apparently, out of the sentence, although in fact acting as an adverb or a preposition. The **interjection** had the meaning of a subjective utterance of emotion, or of an affection, without any notional definiteness, and stands, in fact, outside of the sentence, although it may appear as the unconscious abbreviation of a sentence.

£ This characterising of the parts of speech considers them according to their more general syntactical relations within speech. In the aspects of their form and of their original nature, as determinable thereby, the doctrine of forms has to develop them further, as syntax has to set forth their more particular destinations and their partial interchange among each other.

The more ancient tongues, as well as those generally which have preserved their inflective forms more complete than the English, distinguish nouns and verbs, as parts of speech capable of inflection, from particles, as forms incapable of inflection. This distinction is in English no longer completely applicable, nouns being in great part to be reckoned among the parts of speech incapable of inflection, unless we confound the substitution of case prepositions, (like *of* and *to*) for cases with the notion of inflection. But only the change of the body of the word by additional sounds or syllables can be called inflection, whereby the part of speech, without change of its notional determination, enters into distinct relations within the sentence.

- 2) Another aspect in which the parts of speech are to be considered in the doctrine of forms is the change of the body of a word, produced by **derivation** and **composition**.

Under the name of a **root** we comprehend the similar constituents of a larger or smaller number of words, in which a change or variation, or a dimming of the vowel, as well as a change of consonants, conditioned or explainable physiologically is certainly not excluded. All words belonging to the same root lead us to the conclusion of their original notional connection. The image of a root, with a meaning permeating all its stems and ramifications, is, however, solely of theoretic value. No root as such appears in speech; there every word appears as a definite part of speech, whose radical abstract meaning is separated and individualized, even when the radical sounds alone apparently constitute a word.

The simple word proceeding from the root may, as such, be augmented by inflective forms. The unaltered part is then the **stem**. That even derivative words may be capable of inflection, is readily to be understood, and we call the verbal body, amplified materially and more closely determined notionally, the

stem of the word, as distinct from the inflective termination. We commonly term both the **fundamental form**.

- a) When the stem is amplified by means of sounds or syllables, so that **distinct notions and parts of speech** arise, these further formed stems are called **derivative words**.
- b) But when to a selfstanding word of any sort another, or even more than one more word is added, so that these words coalesce into one **phonetic and notional whole**, **compound words** arise.

The task of the **doctrine of forms** is accordingly to represent the single parts of speech in the aspect of their capacity or incapacity of inflection, as well as the doctrine of the derivation and composition of words.

I. The Parts of Speech and their inflective forms.

A) The Noun.

I. The Substantive.

The noun substantive denotes externally **real, sensuously perceivable, or concrete objects**, which are primarily apprehended as existing in space, and are therefore **Persons, or Things**.

It further serves to denote the notions of **qualities, actions or beings**, gained through the action of thinking, and which, as **abstract objects**, are imagined analogously to things sensuously perceivable, and are employed as subjects or objects in the sentence.

The limit between concrete and abstract substantives is hard to draw, since the perceivable, such as **sound, noise, smell, light &c.**, may in their origin be conceived as the utterance of an activity, and, in regard to the subject apprehending, appear sensuously perceivable. Thus abstract substantives, denoting an action, are often used to signify the sensuously perceivable result, as in **drawing, painting, embroidery**; and the action is even put for the material in which it is effected. The abstract term even becomes the term for an individual to whom an abstract quality belongs: compare **Majesty, Highness**, instead of Prince, and so on. In these regards ancient and modern tongues agree; in the last-named the English goes, however, further than Highdutch. Thus youth (Anglosaxon *geóguð*, *juventus*) denotes not only youth abstractly and collectively (see under *c*), but also the individual in the youthful age; witness (Anglosaxon *vitness*, *testimonium*) testimony and the person bearing it, compare *témoin* = *testimonium*; acquaintance, personal knowledge, abstractly and collectively, and the person known, relation; the affinity and the person related, compare Anglosaxon *sibb*, *consanguinitas*, *cognatus*; fairy, formerly abstractly *fayry* (see *HALLIWELL* s. v.), French *féerie*, stands now in the place of the otherwise more usual *fay*.

A further organic division of substantives is that into **names of sorts, proper names, collective names and names of materials**.

We can regard there as, on the one hand, distinct classes of substantives, while on the other hand they pass in part into one another. We may likewise regard them as sorts of **concrete** substantives, while abstract substantives may also partially take their place.

- a) **Names of sorts** is the term for those substantives which denote, according to their notion, objects which are to be apprehended as individuals of a sort or kind. Concrete objects are of course mostly of this sort; yet even abstractions, such as virtue, vice, bias, sickness &c., so far as they are individualized or imagined as appearing as manifold, may become names of sorts.
- b) Proper names are those substantives whereby persons or other objects are denoted, not according to their notion, but in an extrinsic, conventional manner, without their essence or quality needing be touched. They mostly arise out of concrete names of sorts, but also out of abstract names. But by several objects having the same proper name, the notion of a sort does not on the contrary arise; but, if the proper name is employed metaphorically, in remembrance of the characteristic qualities of the person or thing bearing it, the proper name becomes the name of a sort, as **Nero** represents the notion of a tyrant.
- c) Collective names comprise a number of single objects under one total image, when the image of the individual beings recedes, as in **forest, army**. If these totalities are apprehended as manifold in number they appear as names of sorts: **forests, armies; a thick forest, a formidable army**. So far as abstract substantives can be regarded as terms for the common nature or activity of individuals, they frequently assume the character of collective names, as, **Priesthood, Knighthood, Christendom, Mankind, Clergy**.
- d) **Names of materials** are substantives absolutely denoting the homogeneous matter or mass of which objects consist. They must be regarded as names of sorts, when the matter is separated by distinct qualities or localities, as, **black earth, white glass**; or, when they denote objects prepared from a material, as, **a glass**, = a drinking vessel.

The character of the substantive in these respects has an influence upon its inflective forms.

Declination of the substantive in general.

As regards, in the first place, the fundamental form of the English substantive, as opposed to its inflective terminations, we must draw a distinction between the Anglosaxon and the Romance elements in genuine English words of this class, to which we oppose words subsequently introduced and not assimilated to the great majority.

The substantives of **Anglosaxon** origin, attach themselves in their English form essentially to the Anglosaxon nominative of the singular of simple as well as of derivative substantives. The simple or derivative form of the substantive, common to the Anglosaxon cases, is mostly presented in them. We disregard here the rejection of the vowels of formation *e, a, u, o* as well as the partial substitution

of the mute *e*, and also the annexing of an inorganic *e*, which we have mentioned above. Derivative forms have seldom suffered a loss in consonants, as *dross*, Anglosaxon *dros-n*, *game*, Anglosaxon *gam-en*; *mill*, Anglosaxon *myl-en*; *anvil*, Anglosaxon *anfil-t*; *seal*, Anglosaxon *sēol-h*, but also *sēol*, *syl*; *mare*, Anglosaxon *mer-ihe*, but also *mere*, *myre*, and some others. The *u* in the nominative, arising from a derivative *v*, has sometimes been thrown off, as in *meal*, Anglosaxon *mēl-u*, -*eves*; *ale*, *eal-u*, -*eves* and others. Forms of this very sort (which in Anglosaxon have also *o* instead of *u* in the nominative singular) prove that English was wont to adhere primarily to the form of the substantive prominent in the nominative. Rarely has any other form become the standard; this is however the case in *breech*, commonly, *breeches*, Old-English *breek* (MAUNDEV.) and *breech* (IB.) (compare the Anglosaxon nomin. singul. *broc*, in the genitive, as in the nominative and accusative plural *brēc*), in which the *ee* of the plural seems transferred to the singular; as also in the plural *brethren*, the vowel of the dative singular appears; compare the nominative singular *brōðor*, dative *brēðer*, whereas everywhere else *ō* is found.

In regard to the substantives borrowed from the Old-French we find the same course pursued in English as the French early began to take. Old-French had to a great extent suffered the stem of Latin words appearing in the oblique cases to become the standard for the form of substantives, where it did not appear in the nominative; (compare *maison*, Latin *mansion-is* &c., *nuit*, Latin *noct-is* &c., *citē*, Latin *civitāt-is* &c.); but alongside of these, particularly with masculines, the nominative (and vocative) of the singular, distinguished from the other cases by a subjoined *s* or *x*, mostly according to the analogy of the second Latin declension, but also of the other forms with *s* in the nominative, whereby a preceding consonant was often excluded (compare *coc* — *cos* [Modern-French *coq*], *fil* — *fix* [filius], *clo*, *clou* — *clox* [clavus]). The Old-French also preserved a long time distinct forms for the nominative of the singular and for the other cases, *quens*, *cuens* (*comes*), and *conte* (*comitis* &c.); *enfes* (*infans*) and *enfant* (*infant-is* &c.); *sires* (*senior* with *s*) and *signeur*, *signour* &c. (*senior-is* &c.), *bers* (*baro*, with *s*) and *baron* (*baron-is* &c.) and others. But, as even Old-French puts the forms of the French oblique case in the place of the nominative, and Modern-French has almost wholly lost the forms with the letter *s* in the nominative singular, and, where preserved, uses them for all cases (compare *fil*, *filius*), English has adopted the oblique case of the French as the fundamental form of the substantive. Compare *host*, Old-French *os*, *osz*, *oz* — *ost*, *host*; *ray*, Old-French *rais* — *rai*; *glutton*, Old-French *gloz*, *glouz* — *glouton*, *gluton*; *baron*, Old-French *bers* — *baron*; *emperor*, Old-French *empereres* — *emperor*; *traitor*, Old-French *trahitres*, *traistres* — *traitor*, *trahitour* &c. Even where forms like *virge*, *virgine* stand alongside of each other without distinction of case, English has chosen the oblique form: *virgin* (*virgin-is*). Remnants of the letter *s* of formation in the nominative are rare as, in *fitz* (*fil*, *fix*, *fiz*).

The inflective forms of the substantives which have remained

to the English tongue rest essentially upon the Anglosaxon strong declension of the masculine gender. The formation of the common plural termination *s*, *es* of almost the entire number of substantives found decided support in the French plural *s* (*x*), which was almost always given, even in Old-French, both to the nominative and to the oblique cases of the plural.

Anglosaxon distinguished a strong and a weak declension of the three genders, exhibiting different forms of declension for masculine and for feminine substantives. The case-terminations of Anglosaxon essentially employed, and among them also one for the rare instrumental, are exhibited in the first strong declension of masculine and feminine substantives, as well as in the first weak one of masculine ones; examples of which are here given:

Angl. strong declension I. masc.	I. fem.	weak declension I. masc.
Sing. Nom. fisc (fish)	den-u (den)	drop-a (drop)
Gen. fisc-es	den-e	drop-an
Dat. fisc-e	den-e	drop-an
Acc. fisc	den-e	drop-an
Instr. fisc-ê		
Plur Nom. fisc-as	den-a	drop-an
Gen. fisc-a	den-ena	drop-ena
Dat. fisc-um	den-um	drop-um
Acc. fisc-as	den-a	drop-an

Old-English has already ceased to distinguish the case terminations of the forms in the singular, down to the genitive, which also occasionally vanishes; but in the plural terminations the weak still continues to appear alongside of the strong plural termination, as is more particularly elucidated below.

Modern-English possesses now only one genitive termination, *s*, which arose out of the Anglosaxon *es* of the genitive of the singular, and has even invaded the plural, as well as a plural termination *s*, *es*, answering to the termination of the strong first declension, alongside of which also the weak termination *en* (Anglosaxon *an*) here and there appears. For the genitive termination in both numbers the case preposition *of* with the accusative, analogously to the French *de*, the Danish and Swedish *af*, and the Hollandish *van* is substituted. The accusative coincides in form with the nominative. The accusative likewise partly takes the functions of the dative; else the dative relation is expressed by *to* before the noun, analogously to the French *à* and the Hollandish *aan*. The Modern-English substantive is accordingly inflected in the following manner, the more particular discussion and limitation whereof is next to be stated:

I.					II.				
Sing. Nom.	Acc.	book	name	day	leaf	branch	spy	fancy	hero
	Gen.	book's	name's	day's	leaf's	branch's	spy's	fancy's	hero's
Plur. Nom.	Acc.	books	names	days	leaves	branches	spies	francies	heroes
	Gen.	books'	names'	days'	leaves'	branches'	spies'	fancies'	heroes'

The regular formation of the plural.

By far the most substantives form their plural by an *s* affixed to the fundamental form. Here belong those ending in consonants, with the exception of sibilants and hissing sounds, and of *f* in part, as well as those ending in vowels, with the exception of substantives ending in *ŷ* and *ÿ*, as well as of a number of those ending in *o*.

The words in *ſe* of Anglosaxon origin which assume *s*, change *f* into *v*: life — lives; wife — wives; knife — knives. Exceptions are: strife (Old-French *estриф*), and fife (from *pipare*, Anglo-saxon *pīp* (BOSWELL), Old-norse *pīpa*, Old-Highdutch *phīfa*), safe, Old-French *saif*.

Those which append *es* to the fundamental form are therefore now to be considered as exceptions, whose *e* is partly preserved for the sake of the convenience of the pronunciation, and partly has remained faithful to the older orthography of the singular.

a) Accordingly those in *s*, *ss*, *x*, a dental *ch* and *sh*, among which those in *s* are mostly foreign words and retain in part their foreign termination in the plural (see below), have the plural termination *es*: genius — geniuses (eminent minds); isthmus — isthmuses; kiss — kisses; glass — glasses; witness — witnesses; fox — foxes; box — boxes; watch — watches; church — churches; fish — fishes; brush — brushes. — A single *s* is doubled: Douglas — Douglasses (W. SCOTT).

Among the words ending in *th*, one has preserved the old plural in *es* alongside of that in *s*: cloth — cloths, but, in the meaning of dress: clothes. Clothes is by Walker and others falsely derived from another singular. Compare the Anglosaxon *clāð* (strong neuter, in the nom. and acc. plural *clāð*), vestimentum; Old-English: Tentes made of clothes (MAUNDEV. p. 233). Clothed in clothes of gold (ib.), the others in *th* have *s* merely: smith — smiths, hearth — hearths, path — paths.

b) In words in *f*, with a long vowel, except *oo*, preceding, of Anglosaxon origin, and in *lf*, *f* is changed into *v* with the accession of *es*: leaf — leaves; sheaf — sheaves; thief — thieves; loaf — loaves; elf — elves; shelf — shelves; calf — calves; half — halves; wolf — wolves. To these is to be added the French beef — beeves.

Usage is, however, not consistent; alongside of elves and shelves we also find elfs and shelves. Also reef, Old-norse *rif*, has reefs; waif, thing without a master, although referred to the Anglosaxon *vāfjan*, fluctuare, perhaps reposes primarily, as a law term, upon the Old-French *gaif*, Medieval-Latin *wayfūm*, res vai-

vae, in the legal sense: a stray head of cattle, and has likewise waifs in the plural.

Words of Romance origin likewise retain *f* with a single *s*: brief — briefs; fief — fiefs; relief — reliefs; chief — chiefs; handkerchief — handkerchiefs; mischief — mischiefs; grief — griefs; coif — coifs; gulf — gulfs.

Words ending in *oof*, *ff* and *rf*, without regard to their origin, commonly receive only *s* in the plural in Modern-English, and preserve the *f*: roof — roofs; hoof — hoofs; proof — proofs; reproof — reproofs; whiff — whiffs; skiff — skiffs; cliff — cliffs; sheriff — sheriffs; bailiff — bailiffs; mastiff — mastiffs; distaff — distaffs; muff — muffs; ruff — ruffs; puff — puffs; snuff — snuffs; stuff — stuffs; cuff — cuffs; wharf — wharfs; dwarf — dwarf; scarf — scarfs; turf — turfs &c.

Deviating from this we find the plural of wharf — wharves, Anglosaxon *hveorfa*, *hvērfa*, *mola*, *verticillus*; *hvearf*, *reversio*, *spatium*; Middle-Highdutch *warf*; Old-norse *hwarf*, *colliculus* &c.; likewise turf — turves; Anglosaxon *turf*, plural *tyrf*, *cespes*, as in Old-English. Staff, commonly forms staves, but also staffs (compare hand-staff — handstaffs) (WEBST. a. WORCEST.), Anglosaxon *stāf* — *stafas*, Old-English *o staf* — two staves (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 350). Even the strikingly formed mastiff (Old-French *mastin*, properly house dog, from *maison*), in North-English dialects *masty*, besides the plural *mastiffs* (DRYDEN, SWIFT) has also *mastives* (JOHNSON).

- c) Substantives ending in *ŷ* and *ÿ* with a consonant immediately preceding transform their vowel into *i*, *ï* in the plural, and assume *es*: *flŷ* — *flies*; *spŷ* — *spies*; *allŷ* — *allies*; *óutcrŷ* — *óutcrïes*; *bódy* — *bódies*; *city* — *cities*; *fáncy* — *fán-cies*; *stóry* — *stóries*. The latter preserve the old orthography of their singular: *citie*, *fancie* (*phantasie*), *storie*.

In proper names a final *ÿ* is commonly preserved and *s* only added: Henry — Henrys; Weakly — Weaklys; Petty — Pettys; Pretty — Prettys; Lovely — Lovelys; Quickly — Quicklys (LOWER ENGL. SURNAMES p. 115); although, alongside of these, plurals of names originally generic, Freebodies, Goodbodies (IB.) occur.

If another vowel immediately precedes the *y*, *s* is added to the of unchanged fundamental form: key — keys; kidney — kidneys; journey — journeys; day — days; ray — rays; boy — boys. The derivative termination *ey* is, however, often treated like *ÿ*, so that we meet here and there the forms: attornies, monies, monnies, pullies, chimnies, which are rejected as incorrect by grammarians.

The rarely occurring final *ï* is treated like *ÿ*: alkali — alkalies.

The *e* in simile is likewise occasionally transformed into *ies*: similies (MACKLIN), yet the plural in commonly similes.

- d) Words in *o*, mostly foreign words, commonly receive *es* in the plural, where *e* only serves to symbolize the lengthening of the *o*.

This happens where no short *i* immediately precedes the *o*: echo — echoes; magnifico — magnificoes; manifesto — manifestoes; motto — mottoes; negro — negroes; potato — potatoes; buffalo — buffaloes; flamingo — flamingoes; vulcano — vulcanoes; hero — heroes; calico — calicoes; on the contrary with a *i* preceding: intaglio — intaglios; nuncio — nuncios; folio — folios; portfolio — portfolios; seraglio — seraglios.

But the usage is settled only in the more familiar forms of substantives of the former sort; we find likewise: mosquitos, porticos, virtuosos, dominos, cantos, grottos &c.

Of particles in *o* used substantively we sometimes find plurals which mostly assume a single *s*, but also *es*. The *s* is then often separated from *o* by an apostrophe, in order to render the particle form recognizable: The *pros* and *cons* (WEBST.) from the Latin *pro* and *contra*. O, that your face were not so full of *o's*! SHAKSPEARE ed. Collier, Love's L. L. 5, 2.). The *aye's* and *no's* of Parliament (CHALMERS). All yon fiery *oes* and eyes of light (SHAKSP. Mids. N. Dr. 3, 2.). In russet yeas, And honest kersey *noes* (SHAKSP. Love's L. L. 5, 2.).

The *O'* prefixed to Celtic proper names takes an *s* in the plural: Even the whigs allowed that, for once, the *O's* and *Macs* were in the right (MACAULAY Hist. of Engl. 7. p. 208. TAUCHN.).

The substantives in *oo* follow the main rule: cuckoo — cuckoos; Hindoo — Hindoos.

Note. In general, parts of speech of all kinds used substantively conform to the rules above laid down when they assume a plural form. Yet with particles and other parts of speech the separation of *s* from a previous vowel or consonant by the apostrophe sometimes occurs, as above remarked with regard to the *s* after *o*: The *shes* of Italy (SHAKSP. ed. Collier Cymbel, 1, 4.), that is, women. Happy are the *she's* that can number amongst their ancestors counts of the Empire (LADY MONTAGUE). Your whole conversation is composed of *ifs*, *buts*, *perhappes*, and *supposes* (JAM. COBB). Talk'st thou to me of *If's*, audacious traitor? (Rowe). But me no *buts*, unless you would pass o'er The bridge which few repass (L. BYRON). Our *to-days* and *yesterdays* Are the blocks with which we build (LONGFELLOW). *Y eas* and *Nays* (those voting *yea* and *no*) (WEBST.).

Old-English, after it had made general the plural termination in *s* without regard to the final sound of the singular, used chiefly in the first place the full form *es*, for which it also substituted *is*, *ys*; these terminations often occur alongside of each other in the same writer. It also transferred them to French words, which had not the vowel; erles, wateres, wodes, lordes, Britones, felawes, faderes, foules, townes, kynges, knyghtes, Picardes, emperoures (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), londes, berdes, weyes, townes, hilles, relikes, cubites. castelles &c. (MAUNDEV), werkes, wordes, weddynges, goodes, hestes, lordes, preestes, shereves (sheriffs), bargaynes, burgeises; beggeris, bidderis, londleperis, flatereris &c. (PIERS PLOUGHMAN). Alongside of these a single *s*, also *z*, appears more frequently in Romance words: persons, sisours, cura-

tours, bailliffs, artz, experimentz, sergauntz &c. (PIERS PLOUGHMAN); resons, conditions, surgiens, phisiciens, officers, perils, conseils, subgets, cosins, germaines, testaments, contracts &c. (CHAUCER). Words ending in a single consonant, as, particularly, *r* in an unaccented syllable, often reject the *e*, as beggers, singers, kayzers, flaterers, ladders &c.; but others, as evils, hyls, maydens, lordings, stirrops &c.; which often stand alongside of the fuller forms, compare hillys and hyls (PERCY REL. p. 2. II.), flatereris and flaterers (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 271.). Even in the sixteenth and the first half of the seventeenth century no fixed principle prevails, even in Romance words, in the choice of *s* and *es*. Skelton still writes: lyppes, wormes, buyldynges, frendes and frendis, yeres and yeris, knyghtes, hartes and hartis, princis and lordes, actes, barones, seruauntes &c. along with seruants, castels, waters, cofers, systers &c. Nuts, *peares*, *plumbes*. greene *beanes* are found in TAYLORS WORKES 1630. I. 97. STEPHEN'S ESSAYES and CHARACTERS 2. ed. 1650. In the second half of the seventeenth century the principle is established to let *es* come in chiefly after sibilant and hissing sounds, and thenceforward *e* is gradually restricted to a few other cases.

Irregular Formation of the Plural.

Forms departing from the above mentioned formation of the plural appear at present as irregular. They are of various kinds.

- a) Some plural forms rest solely upon a variety of spelling; whereby there arise some duplicate forms, which have been made use of to distinguish separate significations. Here belong:

penny, Anglosaxon *pending*, *pening*, *penig*, a small coin; the plural *pennies* denotes only the single concrete piece of money; the form *pence* is the term for the value. The latter proceeded from the former and was spelt *pens* in Old-English: Thei boughte Jesu for 30 *penyes* (MAUNDEV. p. 83.). There caste Judas the 30 *pens* before hem (ib. p. 93.). It hathe cost me *pence* And grotes many one (SKELTON I. p. 236.). For one shot of five *pence* thou shalt have five thousand welcomes (SHAKSPEARE Two Gentlem. of Ver.).

die, French *dé*, forms the plurals *dice* and *dies*, a stamp; the Old-English has the plural *deys* (WEBER), *dees* (PIERS PLOUGHM. and GOWER in Halliwell s. v.) and *dis* (CHAUCER). He won it me with false *dice* (SHAKSPEARE Much Ado ab. N.)

pea, Anglosaxon *pisa*, *piosa*, Old-French *pois*, *peis*, Latin *pisum* forms the plural *peas* and *pease*, the latter of which is regarded as collective. The Old-English has the singular *pese* and the plural *pesen* (Anglosaxon *pisa*, -an) (MAUNDEV. p. 199), but also *peses* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 128.) alongside of *pesen* (p. 129.). Even Maundeville uses also *pese* as a plural; *peasen* was still in use in the seventeenth century (J. WALLIS p. 69).

- b) A few irregular plural forms are remnants of the strong declen-

sion of the Anglosaxon. To the second strong declension of the masculine correspond:

man, plural *men*; Anglosaxon *mann*, plural *menn*, *men*. Compound substantives follow the simple: *woman* — *women*, Anglosaxon *wifmann*, *wimmann*, *wimmann*, *wemman*, with which we may compare *mägdennmann*, *virgo*; *merman* — *mermen*, placed by the side of *mermaid*, which in Anglosaxon was *meremenn*, *nympha*, compare the Old-Highdutch *merminni*; and so a great multitude of others: *alderman*, *nobleman*, *yeoman*, *penman*, *footman*, *oarsman*, *boatman*, *seaman*, *countryman*, *kinsman*, *hunter*, *coachman*, *chapman*, *churchman* &c.; to which also names of nations, as *Frenchman*, *Englismen*, *Scotchman* &c. belong. Yet here *Norman* — *Normans*, *German* — *Germans* are excepted, whose names, in as much as they have passed through the Romance, no longer remind us of their origin, although the Anglosaxon possessed *Normann* alongside of *Nordmann*. Those not compounded of *man* are of course not regarded, as *Ottoman* — *Ottomans*, *Mussulman* *Mussulmans* &c.

Proper names compounded of *man* are likewise withdrawn from the old plural form; whence the plurals *Brightmans*, *Flatmans*, *Wisemans*, *Truemans*, *Goodmans* &c.

The old word *leman*, Old-English *lemman*, also *lefmon*, that is *lefe man*, *leef man* (originally used of both sexes), takes *s* in the plural. as even in Old-English it received *s* and *es*: He hadde 300 *lemmannes* (MAUNDEV. p. 72.); *lemmans* of knyghtes (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 431.); *lemmannes* (ib. p. 303.).

foot, plural *feet*, Anglosaxon *fōt*, plural *fēt*; Old-English *foot* — *fete*; along with which old plural forms are also found: *fotez*, *fotiz* (HALLIWELL s. vv.), and so occasionally in Modern-English *foots*: By these dear fragrant *foots* and little toes (OTWAY Venice preserv. London 1796. p. 107), in a comic scene. In proper names *s* likewise appears in the plural: *Lightfoots* &c.

tooth, plural *teeth*; Anglosaxon *tōð*, plural *tēð*.

To the second strong declension of feminines belong:

mouse, plural *mice*; Anglosaxon *mūs*, plural *mýs*; Old-English *mous* — *mys*, *mees*; *myse* in Skelton l. 61. Likewise compounds, as *shrewmouse*, *rear-mouse* &c.

louse, plural *lice*; Anglosaxon *lūs*, plural *lýs*; Old-English *lous* — *lys*; also compounds, like *crab-louse* &c.

goose, plural *geese*; Anglosaxon *gōs*, plural *gēs*; Old-English *gos* — *gees*; to which compounds, as *stubble-goose* &c.

cow, plural *kine* alongside of *cows*; Anglosaxon *cū*, plural *cý*, (genitive *cūna*); Old-English *ku* — *kyen*; PERCY Rel. p. 120. I. has the plural *kye* from the 16th century. The form *kine* is chiefly to be found in poets, but it is also met with in prosewriters; in poetry, for instance: And there he blasts the trees . . And makes *milch-kine* yield blood (SHAKESPEARE Merry Wiv. 5, 1.). The *kine* of the pasture shall feel the dart that kills (BRYANT). Round about him were numberless herds of *kine* (LONGFELLOW); and in prose: His stores of oatmeal were brought out: *kine* were slaugh-

tered (MACAULAY Hist. of Engl. 5. p. 30.). The *ne* (*en*) perhaps springs from the weak declension.

- e) Other plural forms rest upon the **weak** Anglosaxon declension, which has already penetrated into substantives originally strong, which sofar unite a double plural form.

eye; plural, sometimes even in Modern-English *eyen*, *eyne* along with the usual *eyes*; Anglosaxon *eáge*, plural *eágan*; Old-English *eighe*, *igh*, also *e*, *ee*, even now Scottish *ee*, plural *eyzen*, *eighen* and *eighes* (PIERS PLOUGHM.) also *eyen*, *eyenen*, *ein*, *eene*, Scottish *een*. *Eyen* and *eyne* in Skelton; *eyne* in Spenser and Shakspeare Love's L. L. 5, 2. Mids. N. Dr. 1, 1. 2, 2. alongside of *eyes*. The forms *ee*, plural *een*, are used by W. Scott and Byron, and are still in use in Lancashire, Westmoreland and Cumberland.

ox, plural *oxen*; Anglosaxon *oxa*, plural *oxan*, has remained till now faithful to the ancient form.

hose, plural *hosen*, for which *hose* is now substituted; Anglosaxon *hose*, plural *hosan*, Old-English *hose* — *hosen*.

shoe, has a more ancient plural *shoon* alongside of the modern *shoes*; Anglosaxon *scôh*, *scô*, plural *scôa*, but also *scôn*; Old-English *sho*, *scho* — *shoon*, *shone* and *shoos*; Scottish *sho* — *shoon*; *shoon* is even now in use in Westmoreland, *sheaun* in Yorkshire. W. Scott uses *shoon*; also Lord Byron: He wore his sandal-*shoon* (CHILDE HAR.).

child, plural *children*, Anglosaxon *cild* according to the strong form of declension, plural *cild* and, with *r* (*er*) inserted, as often in Anglosaxon, *cildru*. The *en* is added, and is often wanting in Old-English: Yt was no *childer* game (PERCY Rel. p. 94. II.). His *childe* three (TOWNELEY MYST. p. 35). Thus, moreover, Old-English, instead of lambs, has the plural *lambren*, for which also *lamben* occurred, formed, after the Anglosaxon *lamb*, plural *lambru*, (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 307.; LYDGATE Minor Poems ed. Halliw. p. 169.), *ayren*, *eyren* alongside of *egges*, *eggys*, after the Anglosaxon *æg*, plural *ägru*, *ägeru*, instead of *eggs*, of which *eyren* in Caxton's time was the usual form in Kent; *calveren*, according to the Anglosaxon *cealf*, *calf*, plural *cealfu*, instead of *calves*.

brother, plural *brethren* alongside of *brothers*, Anglosaxon anomalously, *brôðor* (dative singular *brêðer*), plural *brôðru* and *brôðra*; Old-English sing. *broder*, *brother*, *brether*, plural *breder*, *brether*, *bredere* (TOWNELEY MYSTER) and *bretheren*, *brethren*. The Old-English formed analogously *suster*, *sister* — *sustren*, *sisteren*, Anglosaxon *sveostor*, *svyster* — *sveostru*; and *dozter*, *doughter* — *doztren*, *doughtren*, Anglosaxon *dôhter* — *dôhtre*. — In prose *brothers* is now commonly used of brothers as children of a family; *brethren* in a lofty style and ecclesiastical language, mostly figuratively. Compare in the proper sense: Joseph . . the which had VII *brethren* (SKELTON I. p. 203). For who is amongst them whose *brethren*, parents, children, wives or sisters Have not partook oppression . . ? (L. BYRON); and figuratively in comparison with brothers: Call not thy *brothers brethren*! Call me not Mother (ID.)

The number of plurals in *en* is pretty considerable in Rob. of Gloucester. Besides the forms above named, still to be met with

in subsequent writers, there are here found by way of example forms in part justifiable, belonging in Anglosaxon to the weak declension, as *arwen*, Anglosaxon *areve*, -an (I. 48.); *steden*, horses, Anglosaxon *stêda*, -an (I. 185.); *schiren*, Anglosaxon *scire*, -an (I. 60.); *sterren*, Anglosaxon *steorra*, -an (I. 229); *ameten*, Anglosaxon *æmete*, -an (I. 296.); *chyrchen*, Anglosaxon *cyrice*, -ëan and -an (I. 319.); *hassen*, Anglosaxon *assa*, -an (II. 404.); *massen*, Anglosaxon *mässe*, -an (II. 405.); *been*, Anglosaxon *beó*, -n and -an (II. 493.); and in part such as are not justifiable through the Anglosaxon, as belonging to a strong form of declension: *tren*, Anglosaxon *treov*, -es (I. 1.); *lesen*, common pastures, Anglosaxon *læsu*, -ve, now dialectically *lease* (IB.); *heueden*, heads, Anglosaxon *heáfud*, -es (I. 261.); *applen*, apples, Anglosaxon *appel*, -es (I. 283.); *candlen*, Anglosaxon *candel*, -e feminine and -esneutr. (I. 290.); *soulen*, souls, Anglosaxon *savel*, -e (I. 319.); *honden*, hands, Anglosaxon *hand*, -e (I. 345.); *hyden*, of land, Anglosaxon *hýd*, -e (II. 374.); *benen*, beans, Anglosaxon *beán*, -e (II. 495.) and others. Even Romance words are referred here, as *uncien*, Old-French *oncle*, *uncle* (I. 87.); *lancen*, Old-French *lance*, *lanche* (I. 185.) and others; adjectives which have become substantives, as *fon*, enemies, Anglosaxon *fā* *adject. &c.* These plurals are proportionately numerous even at the end of the fourteenth century. Many still live only dialectically, as *ashen*, *housen*, still in use in the seventeenth century, and others.

d) Some plurals are of the same sound as their **singulars**.

1) These are such Anglosaxon neuters of the strong form as are not distinguished in the nominative and accusative of the plural from the like cases of the singular. Here belong some names of beasts, as:

neat, plural *neat*, Anglosaxon *neát*, *pecus*, *bestia*; now little used in the singular: for ex. *neat's tongue*, taken collectively in the plural.

deer, plural *deer*, Anglosaxon *deór*, *bestia*.

sheep, plural *sheep*, Anglosaxon *scæp*, *ovis*. The form *sheeps* is rare; compare: Two hot *sheeps*. (SHAKSP. *Love's L. L.* II. 1.); Old-English also *shep*.

swine, plural *swine*, Anglosaxon *svîn*, *sus*; Old-English also *swyn*.

horse, plural *horse*, alongside of the usual *horses*, Anglosaxon *hors*, *equus*. *Horse* occurs in the plural only collectively of cavalry, as is wont to be regarded.

Of another kind are Anglosaxon neuters, which had already the character of collectives in the singular.

folk, plural *folk* and *folks*, Anglosaxon *folc*, *populus*, *gens*. Common usage gives the plural an *s*, if the image of the individuals comes into the foreground. The singular is commonly used for people in general: Not to thinketh the *folk* of the village (LONG-FELLOW). — I'll make him marry more *folks* than one (SHERIDAN). There are some *gentlefolks* below to wait upon Lord Foppington (ID.). The weeping isle That sends the Boston *folks* their cod, shall smile (BRYANT). Old-English uses the plural form with *s*,

primarily in the meaning of nations: Where dwellen many dyverse *Folkes*, and of dyverse Maneres and Lawes (MAUNDEV. p. 4.). Yet folk and folkes are used for people in general: Thanne longen *folk* to gon on pilgrimages (CHAUCER C. T. 12). What thar the recch or care How merily that *other folkes* fare? (IB. 5911.). To the word folk the word *people* has been early assimilated, and used in the general meaning without *s*. Compare the Old-Engl.: Fyve thousand *peple* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 328.). Modern-English These *people*, however fallen, are still men (GOLDSMITH). These *people* of the northeru parts of Scotland were not one nation, but divided in two (W. SCOTT). I have given over fifty *people* in my time, who have recovered afterwards (JAMES COBB.). The plural peoples stands for: nations in the translation of the Bible; Chambers used it in his Information for the People, Lond. 1849: Considering the remoteness of the various *peoples* from one another (p. 29. II.) et ibidem (p. 31. I.).

kindred, is given by Worcester with the double plural *kindred* and *kindreds*. In the Anglosaxon I do not find *cyndræd*; as a compound of *ræden* it would be of the feminine gender, yet *hivred*, *familia*, and hundred, centum, of the neuter gender, occur. The Old-English form is *kinrede*, *kynrede*, *kunrede*.

An Anglosaxon neuter of another sort is *pound*, Anglosaxon *pund* in singular and plural, which sometimes, even in the plural, sounds pound, but commonly pounds. Old-English: Folle-prytty pousend *pound* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 297.). Thritti thousent *pound* askede he (PERCY REL. p. 90. I.). For singulars of like meaning, used instead of the plural, see below.

- 2) An Anglosaxon feminine substantive attaches itself to these forms: *score*, which remains unchanged in the plural; Anglosaxon *scor*, plural *scora*, *incisura*, *numerus vicinarius*. The likeness is explained by the loss of the final vowel, hence: They reign'd the monarchs of a *score* of miles (H. WALPOLE) and threescore, 60; fourscore, 80 &c. So too in Old-English: Many *score* thousand (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 349.). Twenty *score* paces (PERCY REL. p. 46.).
- 3) The great number of adjectives used as substantives do not to a great extent change their form in the plural. They are for the most part originally Anglosaxon, but also Romance adjectives. First of all belong here the comparatives and superlatives, as well as the participial forms in *ing* and *ed*. The vestiges of an ancient inflection have long been lost. For particulars see below; on the Adjective, where mention is made of those which have completely passed over into the inflection of substantives. For the sake of example compare: The *proud* are taught to taste of pain (GRAY). Lamentations ill become us, When the *good* are ravish'd from us (H. WALPOLE). The *rich* with us have two sources of wealth, whereas the *poor* have but one (GOLDSMITH). The *brave* should ever love each other (ID.). The *vile* are only vain; the *great* are proud (L. BYRON). At the hour of council. . . I shall not Be found among the *absent* (ID.). And must they fall, the *young*, the *proud*, the *brave*? (ID.). Blessed

are the *pure* before God (LONGFELLOW). And I was healed as the *sick* are healed (ID.) — Though twenty thousand *worthier* came to crave her (SHAKESPEARE). The *vilest* here excel me (MILTON). — But how to think of what the *living* know not, And the *dead* cannot, or else may not tell (J. HUGHES). For the *blinded* and the *suffering* Alone were at his side (WHITTIER). Old-English still frequently inflected with a plural *e*, which appears to correspond to the Anglosaxon *e* of the adjective in the plural of the strong form of declension; compare Anglosaxon *bald*, plural *balde*; *audax*, *audaces*; *blind*, plural *blinde*; *coecus*, *coeci* &c. Old-English: Of alle manere of men The *meene* and the *riche* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 2.). And the *poore* fede (ib. p. 6.). Amonges *poore* and *riche* (ib. p. 278.). The *gode* shulle gon to Paradys, and the *evele* to Helle (MAUNDEV. p. 132.). Yet the *e* also was early cast off: Though it be songe of *old* and *yonge* (PERCY REL. p. 97. II.). This *e* is also extended to participial forms: One of Goddes *chosene* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 209.); it is often wanting in those in *ed* in *Piers Ploughman*.

Some few original adjectives fluctuate; here belong: *heathen*, plural *heathen* and *heathens*, Anglosaxon *hæthen*, Adj.

- 4) The case is rare that substantives ending in hissing sounds lose their *s* in the plural, as is sometimes the case in the genitive, if the substantive ends in *s* or *ce*. Older instances are: *Madame* regent of the *scyence* seuyn (CHAUCER I. p. 363.). These two *Antipholus*, these two so like (SHAKESPEARE Com. of Errors extr.); whereas elsewhere *Antipholuses* stands in the same author.
- 5) Latin words of the fourth and fifth declension sometimes retain their forms of the same sound in the nominative of the plural as in the singular, as *apparatus*, *hiatus*, *series* and others, but *apparatuses*, *hiatuses*, *serieses* &c. also occur.
- e) Many foreign words have irregular plurals, alongside whereof forms gradually Anglicised become gradually more current.
 - 1) Here we reckon Latin and originally Greek words, which follow the second and third Latin declension, like many in *us*: *incubus* — *incubi* and *incubuses*; *radius* — *radii* and *radiuses*; *focus* — *foci* and *focuses*; *fungus* — *fungi* and *funguses*; *chorus* — *chori* and *choruses*; *genius* — *genii*, but *geniuses* &c.; so too *triumvir* — *triumviri* and *triumvirs*; on the other hand the plural *magi* from *magus* is usual, as also *antiscii*, *periscii*, *antæci*, *anthropophagi* &c., which usually occur only in the plural. Words in *um*, *on* often have their original plural in *a*, but also in *s*: *elysium* — *elysia* and *elysiiums*; *memorandum* — *memoranda* and *memorandums*; *stratum* — *strata*, rarely *stratums*, and others, but forms like *exordiums*, *millenniums*, *decorums* are not unusual; *automaton* (*um*) — *automata* and *automatums*; *criticism* (*um*) — *criteria* and *criteriums*; *phenomenon* — *phenomena*, very unusually *phenomenons*. The plurals *effluvia*, *errata*, *arcana*, *data*, and some others, from words in *um* are still very common. Words in *is*, not increasing by a syllable in

inflection in the Latin, retain *es*, in the English plural: axis — axes; oasis — oases; ellipsis — ellipses; parenthesis — parentheses; hypothesis — hypotheses and the like. Words in *x* (*ix*, *ex*), increasing by a syllable in the Latin, commonly have an English regular form alongside of their Latin one: calx — calces and calxes; calix — calices and calixes; vortex — vortices and vortexes; to the double plural forms index: indices (Exponents of numbers) and indexes (to books) different meanings are annexed; with others the English plural form is hardly found, as from apex — apices. Latin or Greek words in *is*, increasing in inflection, retain their Latin and Greek inflection: iris — irides; ascaris — ascarides; cantharis — cantharides. Words in *en* with an increasing form of inflection incline towards the English inflection: omen — omens (GOLDSMITH), stamen — stamens (this only in Botany) else stamina. Dogma forms dogmas and dogmata, exanthema — exanthemata and so others in *ma*; genus has genera; regale — regalia, in the Latin form.

- 2) Some originally Hebrew words have preserved their plural in *im* alongside of the regular English one: seraph — seraphim and seraphs; cherub — cherubim and cherubs. The form *im* has also been treated as a singular and formed a plural cherubims.
- 3) A few French words which have become naturalized in English are here and there found with a French plural termination, as beau — beaux and beaus; manteau — manteaux, on the other hand commonly portmanteau — portmanteaus &c.; monsieur — messieurs and the like.

Italian plurals in *i* from singulars in *o* or *e* are likewise used: banditto — banditti; virtuoso — virtuosi; dilettante dilettanti; cognoscente — cognoscenti; conversazione — conversazioni &c.

Plural formation of compound substantives.

The plurals of compound substantives present upon the whole no peculiarities, so far as these words, as inseparable bodies, must regularly subjoin the inflective termination to their last constituent, where they have to assume a plural form. Yet the English compounding is partly of a looser kind, so as to let the syntactical relation of their elements glimmer through, whereby some anomalies arise in the inflection. In general the following rules obtain:

- 1) If a substantive is compounded of substantives, standing in a direct relation to each other, that is to say, appearing joined to each other, either by way of apposition or of addition, the last alone is inflected:

peacock — peacocks; cuckoo-bird — cuckoo-birds (SHAKESPEARE); oaktree — oak-trees; fellow-servant — fellow-servants; merchantman — merchant-men; my fellow-scholars (SHAKESPEARE Merry Wives); to encrust the bones of merchant-dukes (L. BYRON Ch. Har.). The shepherd kings of patriarchal times (ID. Sardanapal).

Earl-Marshall — Earl-Marshals; hence we find also, with the prefixing of the word Lord in the plural Lord *Lieutenants* (CRABB Hist. of Engl. Law p. 541.); on the other hand also; the power of the *Lords Marchers* (IB. p. 441).

- 2) If the substantives stand in an indirect relation, the fundamental word is inflected: gunstock — gunstocks; fruit-tree — fruit-trees; cabinet-maker — cabinet-makers. Hence, when the determining substantive is subjoined with a preposition, the preceding substantive is inflected: sister-in-law — sisters-in-law; commander-in-chief — commanders-in-chief.
- 3) If a substantive is compounded with an adjective preceding it, only the substantive is capable of inflection: blackbird — blackbirds; wild-geese; if the adjective follows the substantive, the substantive is ordinarily provided with the plural termination, as in knight-errant — knights-errant; court-martial — courts-martial; yet no agreement is here to be sound. Halliwell forms the plural *knights-errants* (see HALL. Dict. s. v. Graal), and with regard to words compounded with *ful*: mouthful, handful, spoonful, ladleful, lapful &c. opinions diverge about the annexing of the *s* to the first or the second word. But in general the spelling *handfuls* is preferred to *handsful*: Tond same cloud cannot choose but fall by *pailfuls* (SHAKSP. Temp. 2. 2.). *Handfuls* or small parcels of anything (HALLIWELL s. v. culpons); *mouthfuls* (WEBST. and WORCEST.). *Handful* is also found unaltered in the plural: For of the lower end *two handful* It hat devoured, 'twas so manful (BUTLER); and this is the Old-English mode: *pritti schippful* of men (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 39.); myd *pre schippful* of knyghtes (IB. 111.)
- 4) If the composition consists of a substantive with a particle subjoined the substantive receives the sign of the plural: holder-forth — holdersforth (WEBST. and WORCEST.); hanger-on — hangers-on.
- 5) If a preceding verbal element is compounded with a substantive, the inflection goes to the substantive: spend-thrift — spend-thrifts; it likewise goes to the last element if no substantive at all is contained in the compound: Lazy lubbers, good-for-nothings (FOUR OLD PLAYS. Cambridge 1848. Gloss. s. v. slowches). The lovely stars, the forget-me-nots of the angels (LONGFELLOW).

Peculiarities in the use of the Numerals.

The singular supposes the image of an individual, apart from the further determination of the object imagined, as a unit: the plural contains the image of a plurality of individuals. The nature of the object governs the possibility of imagining it in the plural; whence all classes of substantives are not alike capable of the plural formation.

The plural changes in general naught in the notion of the object; yet the image of a thing as a whole, conditioned by the plural, may give the noun a modified or a different meaning.

The plural supposes indeed a singular; but objects which are

went to occur in the plural in common experience, may lose their singular form, or, at least, the use of them may become very limited.

Primitive plurals may excite the image of a single, though compound object, and thence take the character of singulars; as, conversely, a single object may excite a collective image, thereby taking the nature of a plural. Negligence in speech may also in familiar words cast off the inflective termination, a singular form thereby taking the place of the plural. We shall consider numerals from these four points of view.

a) The various classes of substantives have in various degrees the capacity of forming a plural.

- 1) Names of sorts, in the narrower sense, or concrete names of sorts are most capable of the plural formation, since their singulars denote concrete individuals: man — men; house — houses; flower — flowers; field — fields &c. The terms for individuals too, belonging to a people or a place, are names of sorts, and have a plural form, unless they are adjectives used substantively, and retaining, as such, the adjective form: Celts, Germans, Saxons, Londoners &c.

2) Proper names form a plural according to two regards:

- a) when they denote a plurality of individuals of the same name: As I hate hell, all *Montagues* and thee (SHAKSP.). The revolution which drove out the *Tarquins* (TYTLER). One Macdonald is worth two *Camerons* (MACAULAY). In the midland counties of Scotland, such as the three *Lothians* (W. SCOTT). If a substantive determination in this case precedes the proper name, as a title or a second name, only the last proper name is usually inflected: Three *doctor Faustuses* (SHAKSP. *Merry Wives*). If he were twenty *sir John Falstaffs* (IB.). The two *doctor Thomsons* (GOLDSMITH). One of the *miss Flamboroughs* (ID.). Yet in regard to names with a title preceding no complete agreement obtains; we also say, especially in superscriptions: to the *Misses Howard*; to *Messrs Thomson &c.*, with an inflection of the title merely. If another name of a sort precedes the name of a sort, as a determination of it, only the first name of the sort is inflected: the *brothers Thomson*; the *cousins Wilberforce*.

- β) if they become names of sorts in a figurative meaning: I demanded who were the present theatrical writers in vogue, who the *Drydens* and *Otways* of the day? (GOLDSMITH). Not so are *Molières* and *Shakespeares* allowed to manifest their strength (LEWES). Even here prefixed titles and proper names remain unchanged: May there not be *Sir Isaac Newtons* in every science? (WATTS.).

- 3) Collective names are of course capable of the plural formation, if totalities of individuals exist in a plural, as armies, assemblies, forests, tribes, crowds &c.

- 4) Names of materials appear in the plural, if they are distinguished in kind, as oil, oils (different sorts of oils); or if subjects consisting of materials are named simply by their material: copper, coppers, silk, silks, iron, irons, sand, sands. The Poetic view often takes names of materials in the plural as the expres-

sion of *separate* masses or of such as are renewed repeatedly: As in the summer-time the thirsty *sands* Drink the swift *waters* of the Manzanares (LONGFELLOW). White as the *snows* of heaven (J. HUGHES). Cool shades and *dews* are round my way (BRYANT). No more the cabin *smokes* rose wreathed and blue (ID.). Come when the *rains* Have glazed the snow (ID.). This manner of expression is also not foreign to the nobler prose.

- 5) **Abstract substantives** appear in the plural, partly if the notion is distinguished by sorts, partly if properties or activities are represented as belonging to **different persons** or as activities **repeated**: Local *jealousies* and local *interests* had brought his army together (MACAULAY). The dog is ever the friend of his friend, and enters into all his *predilections* and *animosities* (MAVOR). It is chiefly in warm or temperate latitudes that all the *beauties* of his form, and the *energies* of his character are displayed (with regard to the horse) (ID.). I'll see Castalio, tax him with his *falsehoods* (OTWAY). Vasco de Gama, a man of great *abilities* (J. BARROW). — Wherein has Caesar thus deserved your *loves*? (SHAKESPEARE Jul. C.). Sure, something more than fortune joined your *loves* (ROWE). Our *lives* are rivers gliding free To that unfathomed, boundless sea, The silent grave (LONGFELLOW). I better bore The *deaths* of the two sons Heaven took from me Than Jacopo's disgrace (L. BYRON). — Indeed! — By all our *loves*! (OTWAY). 'Twere ten thousand *pities* (SHERIDAN). The *wills* above be done (SHAKSP. Temp.). O let the soul her *slumbers* break (LONGFELLOW). If the abstract substantive is taken concretely, the plural needs no further explanation: On the legs (of the camel) are six *callosities* (MAVOR). Yet the substantive is often taken concretely only in the plural, as, in effect, *effects*; sweeping, *sweepings*.
- b) In connection with the plurals above discussed stands the apparent transmutation of the **meaning** of the substantive in the plural. But a difference arises through a notion's being taken either in a **metaphorical, restricted or amplified meaning** in the plural, or **because subjects express in the plural a single compound thing**. Here substantives of all classes come under review. Many of these plurals have been taken from other tongues.
 - 1) Taken in a **metaphorical, restricted or amplified meaning**, for example, are substantives like respect, *respects*; honour, *honours*; state, *states*; part, *parts*; attack, *attacks*; force, *forces*; spirit, *spirits*; vapour, *vapours*; grain, *grains*; ground, *grounds*, and many more. The number of these words is great.
 - 2) A **compound whole** is likewise often expressed by denoting the single ingredients, which must likewise often be taken in a **metaphorical meaning**. Compare lead, *leads*; colour, *colours*; stock, *stocks*; chap, *chaps*; blind, *blinds*; stay, *stays*; bead, *beads*; scale, *scales*; drawer, *drawers*; spectacle, *spectacles*; stair, *stairs*; nipper, *nippers*; table, *tables*; letter, *letters*. Even abstract substantives present in the plural the image of a totality of activities, as draught, *draughts*; in a metaphorical meaning even the place to

which the repeated activity relates may be present in the total image: sounding, *soundings*; inning, *innings*

- c) Many substantives occur **only** or **hardly** ever save in the plural. English owes many plurals of this sort to its fundamental tongues, whereby the nonexistence of an English singular is explained. In a grammar it suffices to characterize this numerous class in general terms.

- 1) They are partly names of kinds, denoting **persons** or personified beings, which are commonly mentioned only in their totality, although they may also be mentioned here and there in the singular; and partly adjectives used substantively, and among them foreign words, which belong to scientific usage. Instances are: ancients; moderns (both seldom in the singular); parents (certainly usual in the singular for father or mother); ostmen, Danish settlers in Ireland; commons (used as a substantive in the singular for a common pasture); waits (Old-French gaité, waite); the Latin manes, penates &c. Hyades, Pleiades, also in the English form Hyads, Pleiads; caryatides and caryates (in the singular also caryatid); the geographical terms ascii (also ascians with the singular ascian), amphiscii, antiscii, periscii, antœci, periœci, antipodes, (rare in the singular antipode) and others, as anthropophagi, acephali (the name of a sect), literati, and many more.

With these are associated names of mountains, islands, countries and so forth, which are to be regarded as proper names of a multitude: Alps (rarely alp = mountain), Apennines, Pyrenees &c. Azores, Maldives, Ladrões, Hebrides &c. Netherlands, Low Countries, Indies (East Indies, West Indies) as distinguished from ancient India &c.; further, geographical terms, as Dardanelles &c.

- 2) Concrete names of things of this class are divided into several groups.

- a) Many substantives relate to a dual, or double articulation, in which the objects appear.

Here belong organic double members: meninges (Greek *μηνιγγες* from *αἴνιξ*, skin), the integuments of the brain; lungs, (Anglosaxon *lungen*, only plural); reins, kidneys (compare Latin *renes*); hypochondres (Greek *ὑποχόνδρια*), hence also perhaps posteriors, Latin *posteriora*; genitals, Latin *genitalia*, as mustaches (alongside of mustach) and whiskers (compare the Highdutch *wisch*). The clothing of two limbs: mittens (French *mitaine*); spatts and spatterdashes; especially the names for the clothing of the legs: breeches (Anglosaxon plural *brēc* from *brôc*, Latin *braccae*), in the singular commonly meaning buttock; also brogues (in Suffolk; elsewhere brogue is a wooden shoe); trowsers, French *trousses*; slops (Anglosaxon *slop*, *indumentum*); overalls; galligaskins (gallo-vascones, *caligae Vasconum*) now facetiously; in conversational speech: inexpressibles, non-descripts &c. Tools having two legs or levers: scissors

French ciseaux) and shears (rarely in the singular, Old-Highdutch scâri, Middle-Highdutch schaere; compare Anglosaxon scâr, vomer); snuffers (in the singular one who snuffs); pin-cers, pinchers (compare the French pincette), tongs (Anglo-saxon tange); pliers, plyers; tweezers (compare the Highdutch zwicke); calipers (compare caliber from the Arabic kalbah, French calibre); hence also perhaps nutcrackers. Pells mean the parchments of the treasury, pellis acceptorum and exituum.

- β) Others express objects existing together in an indefinite multitude, or consisting of several parts.

Here belong expressions for organic parts, particularly: entrails (French entrailles); intestines (rarely in the singular, Latin intestina); inwards (rarely in the sing.); bowels (Old-French boel, boiele); whereas guts (Anglosaxon guttas, only plural) in English is in use also in the singular gut; chitterlings (compare Anglosaxon cwið, uterus and the Highdutch kutteln); numbles also humbles (compare the French nomble, Latin lumbulus); giblets (compare the French gibelotte; vitals.

Pieces of clothing, as compounded of several parts: weeds (Anglosaxon væd, vestimentum), rare in the singular; regimentals; pontificals, Latin pontificalia; canonicals; hence also weapons, as arms, even in Latin arma, rare in the sing.; greaves, also graves (Old-French greves, Medieval-Latin grevae) (perhaps because of the double piece), as also tassess (Old-French tassettes de corcelet = corselet?), legplates (properly from the waist to the knee). Here also belongs trappings, properly from the saddle cloth (compare the span. port. trapo, French drap).

Compound products of human activity generally: clayes (French claie); shambles (Anglosaxon scamol); stews (Anglosaxon stov).

Agglomerations or aggregates of all sorts: ashes, embers, cinders (also cinder); raments; dregs (Old-English dregg), lees (unusual in the sing.), faeces; molasses, melasses; spraints; hards, hurds; lesses.

Provisions: victuals; eatables; drinkables; viands; greens; delicates; groats (compare Anglosaxon grytt, grot, fragmentum); oats, rarely oat, save in compounds (Anglosaxon âta); fesels (compare Latin faselus).

Moneys and Revenues: annats; estovers (Old-French verbo estofer), legal maintenance; esplees (Old-French espleit), complete income of an estate; emblements (Old-French embler); proceeds; thirthings, the third of the produce of the harvest, which falls to the landlord at the death of the tenant; vails, vales; wages (Old-French gage, wage); pentecostals (to the clergy) &c.

Materials and subjects, which are commonly used collectively: materials (in use also in the sing.); woollens; movables; combustibles; abstergers (commonly, adjectives used as substantives).

Games, in which the subjects are to be imagined as multiplied: nine-holes; ninepins; billiards; loggats; hot-cockles (French *hautes coquilles*?) &c.

Diseases, so far as they are determined by their symptoms, when abstract substantives also appear: measles (in the singular, a leper); jardes (French *jardon*); lampers, also lampas, a disease of horses; vives, fives (French *avives*), a horse disease; whites; shingles; hemorrhoids, emeroids, eme-
rods.

Extensions in space: environs; marches (Anglosaxon *mearc*).

Literary productions: annals, memoirs, epics.

- 3) **Abstract substantives** occur more rarely in the plural only. Yet there belong here:

A considerable number of names of **Sciences**, as totalities of doctrines, of principles or of knowledge, as ethics, optics, œconomics, politics (formerly, in the sing. a politician), mathematics, metaphysics, mnemonics, numismatics, dialectics (also in the sing.), dioptrics, hydraulics, hydrostatics, gnomonics, and other adjectives in *ic* used as substantives; even in *iac*: genethliacs.

Feasts, solemnities and formalities occur, mostly after the precedent of other tongues, likewise in the plural: Bacchanalia and bacchanals, orgies (rare in the sing.), Lupercalia (sing. Lupercal in Shakspeare), encenia &c., exequies (Latin *exsequiae*), obsequies, rarely in the sing. (French *obseques*), espousals (French *épousailles*), nuptials (compare Latin *nuptiae*); with which determinations of time are associated, as calends, ides, nones (*nonae*), matins (French *matines*), vespers (French *vêpres*) &c., in which the activities falling on them are in part disregarded.

We must also apprehend as a comprehension or repetition of activities plural substantives like thanks (Anglosaxon *þanc*); attentates, a judicial process after an injunction or appeal, and similar ones; as also the facetious sullens (from the Anglosaxon *syljan*), is to be taken like the dumps, also in use in the singular.

- d) The use of the plural instead of the singular, and conversely, is on the whole limited. Many forms which are reckoned here are of unknown origin.
- 1) Some plurals have in fact become singulars in speech. They then partly run in the plural the same as in the singular, and have partly developed a new plural out of the original plural form. Here belong: odds, sing. and plur. (perhaps belongs to the Gothic *aups*, Old-norse *audr*, Old-Highdutch *odi*, Modern-Highdutch *öde* = desertus, vacuus; also at present *edd* means in dialects, lonely, alone; the Cymric *od* seems borrowed from the English), inequality, difference, advantage: — means, sing. and plur. (Old-French *meien*, *moien*): — news, commonly treated as a singular, but also as a plural in the same form. Compare: Thus answer I . . . But hear *these* ill news with the ears of Claudio

(SHAKSPEARE *Much Ado ab. Noth.*); as a singular even in Skelton: I am glad to hear *that newes* (MERIE TALES). — bellows, singular and plural (Old-norse *belgr*, Anglosaxon *belg*, *bulga*), wrongly contended to be a singular. Compare: Flattery is the *bellows blows* up sin (SHAKSPEARE *Pericl.* 1, 2.). They watched the laboring *bellows*, And as *its* panting ceased . . Merrily laughed (LONGFELLOW). — gallows, with a new formed plural *gallowses*, even in SHAKSPEARE *Cymb.* 5, 4. (Anglosaxon *galga*). — *pox* and *small-pox*, alongside of which the proper singular form *pock* occurs, are regarded as singulars (Anglosaxon *pocce*, *poc*). — Other words are here and there treated as singulars, as *amends* (French *amende*), even *sessions*. Compare: I'll try him only for a *sessions* or two longer, upon his good behaviour JOHN GAY); even the names of books *Apocrypha* and *Hexapla*. — Here a few compounds are also to be reckoned, which, as terms for coins according to the number of units composing them, have assumed quite the nature of singulars and form new plurals: *sixpence*, plur. *sixpences*; *ninepence*, plur. *ninepences*; *twopence*, plur. *twopences*. Compare: Of seven groats in *mill-sixpences* (SHAKSPEARE *Merry Wiv.* 1, 2.).

We must regard as a cognate syntactical license the use of a multitude in the singular as the term for a college: The *Forty hath* decreed a month's arrest (L. BYRON *Mar. Faliero*). The *Forty doth* salute The Prince of the Republic (ID.); on the other hand: The *Forty are* but men (ID.). Thus too other enumerated units are construed as totalities with the singular of the verb: *Every twenty paces gives* you the prospect of some villa, and *every four hours* that of a large town (LADY MONTAGUE). Here *three parts* of the business *is* left for me to do (GOLDSMITH). Other apparent combinations of a verb in the singular with plurals have to be explained in the Doctrine of the Verb and in the syntax.

But another class of these words consists of original singulars: *alms* passes for the sing. and the plur. (Anglosaxon *ālmāsse*, *ἐλεημοσύνη*; Old-English sing. *almesse*, plur. *almesses*; in Shakspeare *alms* as a singular). — *riches* is now taken as a plural (Old-French *richesce*, *ricece*, Old-English sing. *richesse*, plural *richesses*; *riches* in Shakspeare sing. and plur.). — *summons* is rightly treated as a proper singular, from which the plural *summonses* has been formed (Old-French *semonse*, *semonce*). *eaves* is universally regarded as plural, although it is naught else but an Anglosaxon singular (*yfes*, *ōfes*, *ēfes* and *yfese*, *margo*; Old-Highdutch *opasa*, *tectum*).

2) Singulars on the contrary are oftener treated as plurals.

- a) Here belong words taken in a collective sense and which are also referred to a determinate number of individuals, and however they may be combined with the plural of the verb, without further determination, as *infantry*, *cavalry* and others: The force of Hannibal consisted of *fifty thousand infantry* and *nine thousand cavalry* (GIFFORD). And he loved his queen . . And thrice a *thousand harlotry* besides (L. BYRON *Sardanapal.*). And the rope

with its *cordage three* (LONGFELLOW). Compare Old-English Throughe a *hondrith archery* (PERCY Rel. p. 4. I.). Concrete names of kinds, except in the case specified under β , are more rarely construed with the plural (especially of attributive determinations). Genuine plurals, as deer, sheep, swine and even horse, in spite of its collateral form horses, cannot be referred here (see p. 229), but some other names of animals certainly occur here. To the word horse (for cavalry) the word foot has been early assimilated: There *were* Beaumont's *foot*, who had . . refused to admit Irish papists among *them* (MACAULAY). Compare the Old-English: In this *firste hoost* . . what of *hors*, what of *fote* (MAUNDEV. p. 240). Of other names of sorts there belong here fish, fowl, hair and some others; *Mine are the river-fowl* (LONGFELLOW). Ay, when fowls have no feathers, and *fish have* no fin (SHAKSPEARE Com. of Err.). Of course these words have also plural forms, which even necessarily appear, where the individuals, as such, become prominent: The beasts, the *fishes*, and the winged *fowls* (SHAKSPEARE Com. of Err.). She has more hair than wit, and more faults than *hairs* (ID. Two Gentlem. of Ver.). On the contrary, collective names are more frequently taken collectively, where they do not appear as subjects of the sentence: I have always found . . great plenty, particularly of wild *boar* (LADY MONTAGUE). There is no catching *trout* without wetting one's trowsers (LONGFELLOW). Will ye promise me this before God and *man*? (ID.). A hundred of the *foe* shall be A banquet for the mountain birds (BRYANT). About the cliffs Lay . . shaggy skins of *wolf* and *bear* (ID.), where the individual stands as the representative of his kind, a syntactical license common to many tongues.

- β) Some names of kinds, denoting a determinate quantity, a measure or a weight, even a space of time, were used formerly more than at present in the singular instead of the plural forms after preceding numeral determinations, in literary and educated conversational language. Here belong: pair, brace, couple, yoke (a yoke of Oxen, an Anglosaxon neuter, of the same sound in the singular as in the plural), dozen, score (as a genuine plural, always), groce or gross; quire, ream (of paper); foot, fathom, mile; pound (as a primitive plural), stone, last; tun, hogshead; bushel; week, year (an Anglosaxon neuter, the same in the plural as in the singular). With these are joined names of sorts, as, shilling, piece (mostly of things), head (of men and beasts, an Anglosaxon neuter, the same in the plural as in the singular), sail (of ships), cannon, shot. The language of common conversation cannot be determined by its boundaries, the literary and educated speech is constantly abandoning these forms more and more, which moreover are not without an etymological origin. The English account-books decline such words regularly, and grammarians in part reject the non-inflection as quite false. Compare Murray's Grammar &c. by Gartly. Lond. 1851. p. 111.

In lieu of many examples compare: The ball always concludes

with English country dances, to the number of *thirty* or *fourty couple* (LADY MONTAGUE). Five *hundred yoke* of oxen (JOB. 1, 3.). A constant cascade of about *thirty foot* (FIELDING). Full *fathom five* the father lies (SHAKSPEARE Temp.). I have known when he would have walked *ten mile* afoot to see a good armour (ID. Much Ado ab. Noth.). *Twelve year* since Thy father was the duke of Milan (SHAKSPEARE Temp.). *Hundred head* of Aristotle's friends (POPE). That cost me *two shilling* and two pence a piece (SHAKSPEARE Merry Wiv.). The fleet . . consisted of *92 sail* (MRS. MARKHAM). *One hundred cannon* were landed from the fleet (BURCHELL). *Several shot* being fired (ID.). (See Wagner's Grammar of the English tongue, elaborated by Herrig p. 108.). Forms of this sort are familiar to Old-English, especially where primitive plurals of strong forms in *a*, *u*, rarely in *as*, are at the foundation, for whose vowels *e* is mostly substituted: That is an hundred *fadme* of lengthe (MAUNDEV. p. 23.; Anglosaxon *fædem*, plural -as). A rib of his side, that is 40 *fote* longe (ID. p. 31.; Anglosaxon *fēt* instead of *fētē*). The folk that ben but 3 *span* long (ID. p. 211.; Anglosaxon *spann*, plural *spanna*). And a *lytyle* thens, 28 *pas*, is a chapelle (ID. p. 96.; Old-French *pas*). 20 *myle* (ID. p. 7.; Anglosaxon *mīle*, plural *mīla*); but also *myles* (p. 30.). He was *per sene nygt* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. p. 158.; Anglosaxon *neah*t, plural *neah*ta). *Fourty winter* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 277.; Anglosaxon *vinter*, masculine plural *vinter*) along with *wyntres* (ID.). *Guendolyn* was *kyng fiftene 3er po* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. p. 27.; Anglosaxon *gear*, plur. *gēar*). By *fortye shilling* a yere (PERCY Rel. p. 116. I.; Anglosaxon *scilling*, plur. *scillingas*). *An hondred pousend marc* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. p. 393.; Anglosaxon *marc*, plural *marca*). Fro thens toward the est a 3 *bow shote* (MAUNDEV. p. 97.; Anglosaxon *scyte*, plur. *scytas* or *gescot*, plural *gescotu*).

- γ) In connection with the usage above cited stand some compounds of numerals with substantives, wherein both stand in a direct relation to each other and the substantive should therefore assume the (present) inflection of the plural. Here belong: *seven-night*, *sennight* (Anglosaxon *sēofonniht*, properly plural feminine = *hebdomas*); *fortnight* = fourteen nights, two weeks; *twelvemonth* (Anglosaxon *twelfmōnð* according to BOSWORTH); compare Old-English: Al this *fourtenight* (CHAUCER v. 931.). A *fevere* That taketh me al a *twelve monthe* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 266.) Upon cognate phenomena see below, the doctrine of the **Numeral**. But the noninflection of the substantive is common, even where the composition appears loosened, if numeral and substantive become an attributive determination of a succeeding substantive, so that the whole receives the character of a single compound: You have seen the faces in the *eighteen penny gallery* (FIELDING). I protested I could see no reason for it neither, nor why Mr. Simpkins got the *thousand pound prize* in the lottery (GOLDSMITH). Compare the Old-English: And forth he goth a *twenty divel way* (CHAUCER v. 4255. ed. Tyrwh.). Hence the expressions: a four wheel chaise; a three foot rule; a thirty pound note; an eighty

gun ship &c. Where the genitive relation is denoted by 's, s', this immediate reference ceases; where the plural stands, an appositive relation of the last substantive usually enters.

The Formation of the Genitive.

A remnant of the Anglosaxon case-formation is the so-called Anglosaxon Genitive, which enters instead of the substantive with the case preposition *of*, but only where it precedes the latter as the determination of a substantive, or where no substantive follows or is to be supplied. This case form is found more in names of persons (names of kinds as well as proper names) than in names of things.

The sign of the genitive *s* belongs originally to the singular of masculine and neuter strong substantive forms. In English it was early transferred to all substantive, even of the feminine gender, in the singular. Herein the English agrees with the Danish and Swedish, of which the Danish especially makes the declension of the masculine and the feminine substantive almost wholly coincide. Even in Hollandish in conversational language, the *s* of the genitive is often given, especially to feminine substantives preceding the substantive determined by them, but which does not belong to them; the Lowdutch proceeds similarly. The Modern-Highdutch of northern Germany is acquainted with genitives like *mutter's*, *tante's* *haus* &c., as proper names of the feminine gender in general adopt in Modern-Highdutch the *s* and *ens* of the masculine gender. The Anglosaxon knows nothing of genitives of this sort, but has nevertheless sometimes even in adverbial genitives the termination *es*, as in *nihtes* (*neah*, *niht*, -e, f.); whereas *gevealdes*, *his* *gevealdes*, *sua* *sponte* may certainly be referred to *geveald* m. alongside of *gevealde* f.

- a) Modern-English accordingly puts this *s* in the singular, without regard to the original gender of the substantives, to names of kinds and proper names, more rarely to abstract nouns, with an apostrophe preceding (this with an almost entire consistency since the seventeenth century): *Drinking is the soldier's* pleasure (DRYDEN). *A lawyer's* is an honest employment (JOHN GAY). *Thy sire's* maker, and *the earth's* — And *heaven's* (L. BYRON). To know no more *Is woman's* happiest knowledge (MILTON). You say, you do not know *the Lady's* mind (SHAKESPEARE *Rom.* and *Jul.*). The sports on occasion of *the Queen's* marriage (W. SCOTT). Blest be *your mother's* memory (OTWAY). They knew something of the death of *Macbeth's* father (ID. *Macb.*). He trembles, he glows, Amidst *Rhodope's* snows (POPE). Encamped beside *Life's* rushing stream In *Fancy's* misty light (LONGFELLOW). In *my youth's* summer I did sing of One (L. BYRON).

Even adjectives used as substantives receive this *s*: Into *the future's* undiscovered land (LONGFELLOW); even other parts of speech used substantively: *Yesterday's* sun Saw it perform'd (OTWAY). *To-morrow's* rising sun must see you all Deck'd in your honours (ID.).

If a word ends in a sibilant, as *s*, *x*, more rarely in *ce*, *se*, even

a dental *ge*, the annexed *s* is sometimes wanting in Modern-English, and ' is added as a sign of elision: Read o'er the volume of *young Paris'* face (SHAKSPEARE R. and J.). With joy I see it in *Eumenes'* hands (J. HUGHES). And he, the last of *old Lycurgus'* sons (THOMSON). Look, in this place ran *Cassius'* dagger through (SHAKSPEARE Jul. C.). And *hard unkindness'* altered eye (GRAY). I did not know the *princess'* favourite (CONGREVE). They could scarcely attend to the *Prior of Torvaux'* question (W. SCOTT). There is one tree the *phœnix'* throne (SHAKSPEARE Temp.). At least for that *resemblance'* sake embrace me (H. WALPOLE). Prayer is *Innocence'* friend (LONGF.). O'er *Venice'* lovely walls (L. BYRON). *Venice'* Duke! Who now is Duke in Venice? (ID.). Only for *praise'* sake, when they strive to be lords o'er their lords? (SHAKSP. Love's L. L.). There's a *partridge'* wing saved, for the fool will eat no supper that night (SHAKSP. Much Ado ab. Noth.). With regard to the treatment of the *s* the Anglosaxon led the way, which often left proper names in *s* unchanged in the genitive: *Urias' vif*; *Mattheus gerecednys*; whereas else *es* is appended; Remuses &c. — Yet no agreement prevails in this respect, even in one and the same author, and the annexing of an *s* to substantives of this sort is very common, although the collision of several sibilants offers a difficulty in pronunciation. In poetry, the subjoined *s*, with the apostrophe, after sibilants and hissing sounds, counts (either with or without a preceding, otherwise mute *e*) as a full syllable; compare prose instances: Randolph agreed to act by *Douglas's* counsel (W. SCOTT). Her *mistress's* bell rung (FIELDING). Your *Grace's* name is the best protection this play can hope for (ROWE). Thus *Wallace's* party grow daily stronger (W. SCOTT); and passages from poets: Sighing for *Phyllis's* or *Cloe's* pity (ROWE). Just sense and sober piety still dictate The *Countess's* command. With truth I say it (H. WALPOLE). Man, who rejoices in our *sex's* weakness (ROWE). According to the *Church's* rev'rend rite (ID.). Inheriting a *prince's* name and riches (L. BYRON). Nor was it my intention To wound your *Reverence's* saint-like organs (H. WALPOLE). Here certainly also occur instances, where no full syllable in verse arises: At every hazard; and if *Venice's* Doge &c. (L. BYRON Mar. Faliero I, p. 25. ed. Tauch.).

The Old-English early transferred the genitive termination *es* (*is*, *ys*), sometimes even a simple *s* after consonants, to all substantives in the genitive of the singular, although at first more rarely to feminines: Allas, myn *herles* queen! (Anglosaxon heorte, -an Fem., cor [CHAUCER v. 2777.]). As the berstles of a *sowes* eeres (Anglosaxon sugu, -e fem., sus, perhaps sug, -es, n. [IB. v. 558.]). That knew this *worldes* transmutacioun (Anglosaxon veorold, -e fem., mundus [IB. v. 2841.]). And at the kinges *modres* court he light (Anglosaxon mōdor, gen. the same mater [IB. v. 5206.]). His *sistars* son was he (Anglosaxon sveostor, gen. the same soror [PERCY Rel. p. 4. II.]). Seynte Anne oure *Ladyes* modre (Anglosaxon hlæfdige, -an, domina [MAUNDEV. p. 15.]). In *Hermingildes* chambre whil sche slepte (CHAUCER v. 5015.). And by *Custaunces* mediacioun (IB. v. 5104.). The *images* hond (MAUN-

DEV. p. 9.). *Marthaes* and *Maries* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 217.). But genitives without *s*, not merely of the feminine gender are often found also earlier and later: *Ys broper dep.* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. p. 121.). *To David kyndom* (IB. p. 9.). *pe quene fader* (IB. p. 26.). *pe entrede in at Temse mouþ* (IB. p. 47.). *pi kynde lond* (IB. p. 85.). *For Marie love* (IB. p. 28.). *Through Adam syn and Ere foly* (TOWNELEY MYST. p. 160.). *His fader wille thou must nedes wyrk* (IB. 167.). *My fader ordynance thus it is* (IBID.). The masculines and generally proper names in *s* frequently remain unchanged in the genitive, as in Chaucer: *markis, Sathanas, Peneus, Theseus, Melibeus, Ceres, Venus*, although also *markeses, Peneuses, Cereses* &c. occur; so too feminines in *ce*: *Sith the pestilence time* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 6.); still in Skelton: in *Magnyfyceunce syght* (I, 268.). Even other feminines are also found sometimes late without the sign of the genitive: *For my fansy sake* (SKELTON I, 261.) The not denoting the genitive of words in *s* is termed very common even in the seventeenth century, as in Priamus daughter, *Venus temple* &c. The genitive termination *es* is familiar, along with the mere *s*, down to the sixteenth century: *In wedlockes sacred state* (JOCASTA, 1566). *Wisedomes sage aduise* (IB.). *My ladyes grace* (SKELTON I. p. 36.). *Goddess passion* (A new Enterlude called THERSYTES). *A mannes mighte* (IB.).

Another sort of absence of mark of the genitive relation, not properly concerning the doctrine of forms, is the employment of the uninflected case after substantives which operate like prepositions, either with or without attributive determinations: *He has left you all his walks on this side Tiber* (SHAKSPEARE Jul. C.). *That all was over on this side the tomb* (L. BYRON). *Leaving Comorn on the other side the river* (LADY MONTAGUE). Thus popular speech uses 'on board a ship' instead of 'on board of a ship' and the like. Of yet another kind is the transition from the genitive relation into that loose combination of substantives, wherein the preceding one operates as the determining word of a compound: *Hard by, at street end* (SHAKSPEARE Merry Wiv. 4, 2.). *Thou com'st from Jersey meadows* (BRYANT).

- b) The inflection *s* is also transferred to the genitive of the plural, without distinction of the original declension or gender of the substantives. After the Anglosaxon plural inflection had ceased to enter into the genitive in Old-English, so far as this could be the reason for a distinction from the nominative, the genitive generally was left uninflected, but soon gave to those plurals not ending in *es* in the nominative the inflection of the genitive singular. Modern-English in point of fact also leaves the genitive plural in *s* without inflection, but adds the mark of elision, as if an *s* were wanting. The seventeenth century, inversely, mostly put a mark of elision before the *s*, which modern copies commonly transpose according to the modern fashion. Instances: *And with the brands we'll fire the traitors' houses* (SHAKSPEARE Jul. C.). *That dawn never beam'd on your forefathers' eye* (W. SCOTT). *These happy masks, that kiss fair ladies' brows* (SHAK-

SPEARE R. and J.); on the other hand according to John Wallis (sec. XVII): the *Lord's House* = the House of Lords; the *Common's House* = the House of Commons, whereby he adds, that the fundamental forms are: the Lords's House, the Commons's House.

The complete absence of the mark of elision has moreover not yet quite ceased: Who was the cause of a long *ten years* war? (OTWAY). They passed this way! I hear *their horses* hoofs (LONGFELLOW).

Plural forms without *s* adopt completely the genitive form of the singular: Young *men's* love then lies Not truly in their hearts but in their eyes (SHAKESPEARE R. and J.). The white hands of *gentlemen's* daughters (W. IRVING). More than a hundred *children's* children rode on his knee (LONGFELLOW).

Adjectives used as subjectives, adopting no *s* in the nominative of the plural, sound in the genitive of the plural, as in those of the singular: The *poor's* rate obliges us to give so much clarity (FIELDING). We may take forms of this sort for collective singulars.

Occasionally other parts of speech used as substantives, which in themselves, we must take to be plurals, also receive this *s*: A mark'd man to the *Forty's* inquisition (L. BYRON Mar. Faliero). Let it live on . . . till the hour of nature's summons, but the *Ten's* is quicker (IB.).

Old-English still sometimes used the termination *ene*, corresponding to the Anglosaxon weak genitive termination *ena*, which was also frequently found in the strong form of declension, and that not alone in Anglosaxon substantives: Al *Denene* schire (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER 1, p. 5.). Thoru *frerere* rede (ID. 2, p. 545.). Crist, *kyngene* kyng (PIERS PLOUGHM. 1, p. 21.). And al the *Jewene* joye (IB. p. 384.). But the usage was soon adopted of employing the plural form in *es* (*s*) and to let the genitive relation be inferred solely from the position of the substantive: Of whom the book of *fadres* lyfes spekethe (MAUNDEV. p. 79.). Thei ben now in *paynemes* and *Sarazines* hondes (IB.). On the *olifantes* bakkes (ID. p. 191.). Cristes lore, and *his apostles* twelve, He taught (CHAUCER v. 529.). The plurals in *en* were also treated so: With *gode men* almesdede (DAME SIRIZ p. 7.). Judas he japed With *Jewen* silver (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 19.); but the transfer of the singular *es* to such forms is old: Ye . . . Rende *mennes* clothes (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 13.). And putte it in to *Cristene* *mennes* hondes (MAUNDEV. p. 104.).

Peculiarities in the use of genitive forms.

- a) So far as **attributive** determinations, preceding a substantive in the genitive, are wholly incapable of inflection, of course the substantive alone receives the sign of the case: By the *blue lake's* silver beach (LONGFELLOW).

If **substantives** be taken **attributively** precede a substantive, Modern-English likewise inflects only the substantive determined by them. The most frequent case of this sort is the determination of a **proper name** by preceding **proper names** or **names of**

kinds: After *Edward Bruce's* dead (W. SCOTT). I am *sir John Falstaff's* (SHAKSPEARE *Merry Wiv.*). So perish all *Quren Elizabeth's* enemies! (ROBERTSON). Is this *the tenant Gottlieb's* farm? (LONGFELLOW). Like *god Bel's* priests (SHAKSPEARE *Much Ado* ab. Noth.). Of *Amanda our friend Loveless's* wife (SHERIDAN). The outside of *doctor Belioso's* house (J. COBB). He bears a most religious reverence *To his dead master Edward's* royal memory (ROWE). In a conversation at dinner, at *your cousin Campbell Mc Kenzie's* (MACKLIN). — This was common even in Old-English: The desertes of *Prestre Johnes* *Lordschipe* (MAUNDEV. p. 122.). By *king Henries* day (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER 2. p. 532.). Yet not the proper name, but the name of the kind was inflected: *pe emperoures* August (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER 1. p. 61.), especially where another name of a kind came between the proper name and the name of the kind: Harald, *pe kynges sone Knout* (ID. 1. 324.). That our *kinges* moder *Henri* was (ID. 2. p. 530.).

A name of a kind may also precede a name of a kind as an attributive determination, when the same inflection of the last takes place: To his, the *tyrant husband's* reign succeeds (ROWE). His *brother pirate's* hand he wrung (L. BYRON).

- b) If a genitive substantive is followed by a determination consisting of a preposition with a substantive, the substantive with its determination is taken as a whole to whose last substantive constituent the *s* of the genitive is added: *The king of Great Britain's* dominions (MURRAY). *The Count of Lara's* blood is on thy hands (LONGFELLOW). Here are some fine villas, particularly *the late prince of Lichtenstein's* (LADY MONTAGUE). *A field of battle's* ghastly wilderness (L. BYRON). Do my eyes deceive me, or have the enemy besieged *my father-in-law's* house? (J. COBB.). — Old English deviated frequently herefrom, in so far as it could insert between the genitive and its further determination the substantive to which the genitive was referred. In this case the preceding substantive received the sign of the genitive: *The kinges* soster of *Spaine* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER 2. p. 532.). *The erle's* sone of *Gloucestre* (IB. p. 530.).
- c) If a substantive apposition follows a substantive, the termination of the genitive is commonly given to the apposition, unless it is separated from its substantive by the substantive to which the genitive is referred: *St. John the Evangelist's* day, *John the Baptist's* head &c.; and so too with proper names with appositions, as: *William the Conqueror &c.* Weeping again *the king, my father's* wreck (SHAKSPEARE *Temp.*) *Forgiveness of the queen, my sister's* wrongs (L. BYRON *Sardanap.*). I was yesterday at *Count Schonbrunn, the vice-chancellor's* garden (LADY MONTAGUE). On the contrary: For *the queen's* sake, *his sister* (L. BYRON *Sardanap.*). It is *Othello's* pleasure, *our noble and valiant general* (SHAKSPEARE *Oth.*). Compare Old-English: In *Piers* berne *the Plowman* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 417.).

This rule is, however, often departed from in common life, and grammarians permit, for instance, to say: I left the parcel at *Mr.*

Johnson's, the bookseller, as at *Mr. Johnson, the bookseller's* (CROMBIE); others do not even acknowledge the latter to be right. Compare Guy's *English Grammar*: London 1833 p. 80. If the apposition following a proper name is more comprehensive, the former appears indeed preferable: *The Psalms are David's the king, priest and prophet of the Jewish people* (MURRAY). See Murray's *Grammar*, revised by Herrig p. 122.

The double inflection of a substantive and the apposition at the same time is rare: A small and old spaniel, which had been *Don Jose's, his father's* (L. BYRON).

- d) If more than one substantive stand in the genitive relation to one and the same substantive, either only one, and that the last, of the genitives assumes the inflectional mark, or all are equally inflected. The last receives it, if all genitives are apprehended as the totality of the subjects or individuals referred, whether they are connected by a copulative or a disjunctive conjunction, or are placed *asyndetically* beside each other. All are inflected, if either the word of reference (in the plural), is referred distributively to the genitives, or if the genitives, in their common reference to a substantive, must be thought as separate or as apposed. The intention of making the single members of a totality prominent likewise effects the repetition of the mark of inflection. It is clear that play is given here to individual apprehension.

a) **Nonrepetition of inflection**: Keep your loyalty, And live, *your king and country's* best support (ROWE J. Shore). Woman, *sense and nature's* easy fool (IB.). In wonderworks of *God and nature's* hand (L. BYRON). *Dryden and Rowe's* manner, Sir, are quite out of fashion (GOLDSMITH). *Oliver and Boyd's* printing-office (M' CULLOCH). And *Otway, Radcliffe, Schiller, Shakspeare's* art Had stamp'd her image in me (that of Venice) (L. BYRON). — When the contending nobles shook the land with *York and Lancaster's* disputed sway (ROWE J. Shore). After a fortnight or three week's possession (GOLDSMITH). Whose arch or pillar meets me in the face *Titus or Trajan's*? (L. BYRON).

β) **Repetition of inflection**: That hereditary feud Between *Valentia's* and *Granada's* kings (CONGREVE). Here repose *Angelo's, Alfieri's* bones, and his *The starry Galileo* (L. BYRON). Mountains above, *Earth's, Ocean's* plain below (ID.). For *honour's, pride's, religion's, virtue's* sake (ID.). Beyond or *love's* or *friendship's* sacred band Beyond myself, I prize my native land (ROWE). They find themselves happy when they can enjoy a pantomime, under the sanction of *Johnson's* or *Shakspeare's* name (GOLDSMITH).

If articles precede the genitives, the inflection is likewise repeated: *The sage's* and *the poet's* theme (ROGERS).

If other particles than *and*, or, come between the genitives, the repetition of the inflection is likewise of course: He has two sons, that were ordain'd to be As well *his virtues'* as *his fortunes'* heirs (OTWAY). They are *Thomas's* as well as *James's* books (GUY).

The gender of substantives.

Anglosaxon distinguished a threefold, Old-French a twofold grammatical gender of substantives; English has preserved the **three genders**, the **masculine**, the **feminine** and the **neuter**, mostly, however with the obliteration of the differences of gender formerly fixed by the verbal form or the usage of the language.

With the abandonment of the differences of gender in the form of the article, the adjective and the attributive pronoun, and with the complete assimilation of the declension of all genders, the recollection of the former grammatical gender must have been almost totally lost. The language of common life and of poetry has partly preserved the memory of them. The conception of the gender is certainly hardly perceivable save through the personal pronouns referred to a substantive (*he, she, it* &c.) and their possessive forms (*his, her, its* &c.).

With few exceptions the language of conversation of the well-educated and of common prose has returned to the natural distinctions of sex in the determination of the gender of substantives. The gender is expressed in a limited measure by substantive terminations.

Accordingly, substantives expressing **male beings** pass in general as **masculine**; those expressing **female beings**, as **feminine**, so that here only **animal nature** is considered. A few **names of things** are, in the more general usage, masculine or feminine. All other substantive are regarded as of the **neuter** gender; even animal beings, where the regard to their natural gender retires, are treated as **neuters**. Yet the common names of the different races of animals (*nomina epicoena*) are occasionally determined from other points of view.

Poetry and the more noble prose not rarely depart from the common mode, treating names of things as masculine or as feminine substantives.

a) As regards the **masculine** and the **feminine** gender with reference to their distinct forms, the natural distinction of sexes is expressed in various ways.

1) This is done partly by words of **different roots**, or by words, whose termination denoting gender has been effaced. They originate mostly with the Anglosaxon, but partly from the Old-French. The one form is exceptionally of Anglosaxon, the other of Romance origin.

c) Here belong terms for **men**, as *father* (Anglosaxon *fäder*); *mother* (Anglosaxon *móðor*); — *brother* (Anglosaxon *brôðer*); *sister* (Anglosaxon *sveostor*); — *son* (Anglosaxon *sunu*); *daughter* (Anglosaxon *dôhter*); — *uncle* (Old-French *uncle*, *oncle*); *aunt* (Old-French *ante*, Latin *amita*); — *boy* (Old-English *boye*, *boy* [PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 214 and 6.], compare Swedish *bof*, Lowdutch *bôw*, *spitzbôw*); — *girl* (Old-Engl. *gerl*, of both genders, compare the Lowdutch *gôr*, *unadult girl*, *small child*, *göre*, *daughter*); — *bachelor* (Old-French *bachelor*); — *maid*, *maiden* (Anglosaxon *mägeðf.*, *mägden n.*). — *king* (Anglosaxon *cýning*,

cyng); *queen* (Anglosaxon cwen, perhaps belonging to the same root as cyning). — *earl* (Anglosaxon eorl, ĕrl); *countess* (Old-French contesse, cuntesse). — *friar* or *monk* (Old-French freire, Anglosaxon munec, monc); *nun* (Anglosaxon nunne, Old-English nonne). — *wizard* (Old-French guiscart, guischart, from the Old-norse viskr, sagax; the Anglosaxon vigelere and hveolere, divinator, is, on the contrary, abandoned) in Lancashire he-witch; *witch* (Anglosaxon vice).

From the same stem with an obliterated derivation are: *nephew* (Old-French nief, niez, nevod, neveu, Latin nepot-is, compare Anglosaxon nēfa); *niece* (French nièce, Latin neptis). Thus also *stoven* (compare Anglosaxon slav, piger); *slat* (compare Dieffenbach G. Dictionary 2. p 266), and *lad* (Old-English ladde, Old-Scottish laid, Anglosaxon leód, vir); *lass* Scottish the same) seem to belong to the same stems.

A masculine has been formed upon an original feminine in: *widower* (compare Middle-Highdutch witewaere, Old-Highdutch witowo); *widow* (Anglosaxon viduve, vuduve, Latin vidua).

To other simple forms compounds stand opposed, as in: *man* (Anglosaxon mann); *woman* (Anglosaxon wifman); whence nobleman, gentleman &c.; noblewoman, gentlewoman &c.; and conversely in: *husband* (Anglosaxon hūsbonda); *wife* (Anglosaxon wif, n.); *bridegroom* (Anglosaxon brȳdguma, procus), yet also groom alone and groomsmen (LONGFELLOW); *bride* (Anglosaxon brȳd, uxor, sponsa, femina). — *sir* (Old-French sires, sire); *madam* (ma dame).

Compounds stand opposed to other compounds in: *lord* (Anglosaxon hlāfveard, hlāford); *lady* (Anglosaxon hlāfveardige, hlāfdige). — *gaffer* (not from the Anglosaxon gefādera, m. patruelis, but from godfāder), in Lincolnshire also gaff, godfather, old man, grandfather, often in the address, neighbour, friend; *gammer* (not from the Anglosaxon gemēder, f. commater, but instead of godmōdor), old woman, grandmother. Here also belong: *grandfather*; *grandmother*. — *grandson*; *granddaughter*. — *grandsire*; *grandam*, jocosely *grannam*, *granny*, *grandmother*; whereas the simple *sire*; *dam*, mother are now only used poetically of men, and the latter even with contempt. Both are now used on the other hand of beasts, as, *male* (Old-English maylle) and *female* (Old-English femaylle), where they are used substantively.

- 3) The names of beasts, coming into consideration here are of Anglosaxon stem, and not numerous. They mostly belong to mammals: *ram* (Anglosaxon ramm, aries, vervex), and *wether* (Anglosaxon vēðer, aries, vervex); *ewe* (Anglosaxon eow, eov). — *boar* (Anglosaxon bār); *sow* (Anglosaxon sugu). — *bull* (Old-norse boli); *cow* (Anglosaxon cū). — *bullock* (Anglosaxon bulluca, m. vitulus), gelded bull, and *steer* (Anglosaxon steór, juvencus), the same, likewise ox (Anglosaxon oxa, bos, taurus), also a general name for neat cattle; *heifer* (Anglosaxon heāhfōre, heāfre). — *buck* (Anglosaxon bucca); *doe* (Anglosaxon dā, dama). — *dog* (Old-norse doggr, m.), as the name of a

kind, to denote the masculine gender in compounds; *bitch* (Anglosaxon *bicce*, *cunicula*). — *stallion* (Old-French *estalon*), also *horse* (Anglosaxon *hors*, n. *equus*) instead of stone-horse in: to take horse = to be covered, as a mare; *mare* (Anglosaxon *meribe*, *mere*, *equa*). — *stag* (Old-norse *steggr*, mas plurium *ferarum*; the cock is also called stag in North-English) and *hart* (Anglosaxon *heorut*, *heort*); *hind* (Anglosaxon *hind*), also called *roe* (Anglosaxon *râh*, *râ*, *caprea*), yet this is also a general name for stag; the male animal also roebuck. — *colt* (Anglosaxon *colt*); *filly* (compare also *fol*, *pullus*, *equuleus*, English foal; Old-Scottish *fillok*, Cymric *ffilog*).

Of birds there occur: *drake* (Old-norse *andriki*); *duck* (from the verb *duck*, Lowdutch *dûken*, Hollandish *duiken*; on the Baltic [Warnemuende] the wild duck is called *dûker*; Swedish Danish *dukand*). — *cock* (Anglosaxon *cocc*, *coc*); *hen* (Anglosaxon *henn*, *gallina*, compare *hana*, *gallus*). Of the same stem are: *gander* (Anglosaxon *gandra*, m. *anser*; Old-English also *gant*: with a *gose* and a *gant* (SKELTON l. p. 111.), Lowdutch *ganter* and *gante*, *gantje*; goose (Anglosaxon *gôs*). — *ruff*, the cock bird of the fighting snipe has its name from its great *ruff* (English *ruff*; Old-English *ruff*, rough: compare Old-norse *rûfnn*, *hirsutus*, Anglosaxon *hreôf*, *callosus* and *hreôh*, *hreôv*, asper; the hooded pigeon is called in English *ruff*); *reere*, the hen bird (although without a *ruff*), seems formed after *ruff*.

Of other animals such different denominations hardly occur; but of fishes: *miller* (Anglosaxon *milte*, otherwise named after milk, Old-norse *miôlk*, *lactes piscium*, compare Danish *melkefisk*; *spawner* (from English *spawn*; Old-English *spane*, compare Anglosaxon *spên*, *fibra*; *spôn*, Old-Highdutch *spân* = *cremium*, *fomes* &c., Old-norse *spônn* = *ramentum ligni*). Among insects are distinguished: *drone* (Anglosaxon *drân*, *dræn*, Danish *drone*), for the male of the bee; *bee* (Anglosaxon *beô*, f.) also a general name, bee.

- 2) Not a small number of substantives distinguishes the female from the male sex by a derivative termination.

a) Names of persons are here principally distinguished. Distinctions like that of the Anglosaxon masculine and feminine substantives in Declension, for example: *gât*, -es, *caper* and *gât*, -e, *capra*, were no longer possible; varieties of the nominative, as of those in *a*, *m*. and *e*, f.: *maga* — *mage*, *cognatus*, -a; *nëfa* — *nëfe*, *nepos*, *neptis*, were likewise abolished by the treatment of the final vowels. The feminine termination, by derivation by means of *en* (*n*): *munec* — *municen*, *monachus*, *nonna*; *älf*, *elf* — *elfen*, *incubus*, *lamia*; *god* — *gyden*, *deus*, -a; *câsere* — *câsern*, *imperator*, *imperatrix*, has scarcely been otherwise preserved than in the name of an animal (see β farther below). The derivative termination *estre*, *istre*, developed into *ere* (English *er*), as in *vebbere* — *vebbestre*, *textor*, *textrix*; *bâcere* — *bâcistre*, *pistor*, *pistrix*, is in great part abandoned, but has partly passed over directly into the nominative and has even adopted

a new feminine form (see below). To distinguish the genders therefore Romance derivative forms have therefore essentially been chosen.

Of **Anglosaxon** terminations accordingly *ster*, Old-English *stere*, are here seldom considered: spinner — spinster. Old-English has several feminines in *stere*: bakstere; brewestere (PIERS PLOUGHMAN); knitster is in use in the Devon dialect. In Skelton tappyster (Anglosaxon tǣppestre, caupona from m. tǣppere) is still a barmaid: A tappyster lyke a lady bright (1, 239). Now the most of those remaining are masculine, sometimes alongside of masculines in *er*, for instance rhymer and rhymster; weaver and webster; singer and songster &c. See, moreover, the doctrine of derivation.

Among **Romance** terminations is the feminine form *ine*, *ina*, wherein the Latin, the French and the Germanic form (*ina*, *ine*, *in*, compare *rex* — *regina*; Old-French *roi*, *rei*, *rai* — *roïne*, *reïne*, *raïne*; German *markgraf* — *markgräfin*) mingle: czar — czarina; hero — heroine (French *héroïne*, Greek and Latin *heroinë*); margrave — margravine; landgrave — landgravine. Some of them have adopted other feminine forms along with them. (See below.) Sultan — sultana rests upon the Medieval-Latin *sultanus*, -a; infant — infanta upon the Spanish and Portugese *infante*, -ta.

The termination *ess*, Old-English *esse*, French *esse* has received a wide diffusion, corresponding to the Latin *issa*, Greek *ισσα*, *ισσα*. It is also found in Anglosaxon in foreign words, as *abad* (od, ud) — *abbudisse* (*abbas* — *abbatissa*). From words in *or* and *er* arise the terminations *oress* and *eress*, corresponding to the French *eresse* (*oresse*), as from words in *tor* and *ter*, the termination *tress*, which goes back to the French *trice*, Latin *trix*, the last of which from substantives in *tor* still often stands along with *tress*. The these are joined some in *dor* and *der* with the termination *dress*. English here confounds Romance and Germanic words, regarding the termination *ess* in all forms as the homogeneous mark of the feminine.

The termination *ess* is added to masculines in *n* ending in a consonant (*on*, *an*, *in*, *en*, *ain*): patron — patroness; baron — baroness; deacon — deaconess; champion — championess; canon (Old-French *canone*, Modern-French *chanoine*) — canoness (French *chanoinesse*); sultan — sultanness, alongside of sultana; compare Old-English *soudan* — *soudannesse* (CHAUCER); guardian — guardianess; dauphin — dauphiness; citizen — citizeness (rare); chieftain — chieftainess (MISS SEDGWICK); to substantives in *t* (*st*, *nt*): poet — poetess (French *poétesse*), for which also poetress occurs; prophet — prophetess (French *prophétesse*); hermit — hermitess; priest (Anglosaxon *preóst*) — priestess (compare the French *prêtresse*); host — hostess (French *hôtesse*); count — countess (Old-French *contesse*,

cuntesse); viscount — viscountess; giant — giantess; saint — saintess (FISHER); regent — regentess (CORGRAVE). — Irregular is here abbot — abbess according to the French fashion (abbesse); in tyrant — tyranness (AKENSIDE) the older masculine form *tyran*, as in anchoret — anchoress the old masculine *ancre*, *ancor* (Anglosaxon *ancor* and *ancra*, *solitarius*, *anachoreta*) is the foundation.

A few **other** substantives ending in a **consonant**, but not in the derivative terminations *or* and *er* belong here, as god — goddess (compare French *deesse*, Anglosaxon *gyden*), Old-English even *goddesse* (CHAUCER); chief — chiefess (CARVER); herd — herdess (BROWNE), Old-English *hierdesse* (CHAUCER); shepherd — shepherdess; czar — czaress alongside of *czarina*; peer — peeress (French *pairesse*); heir — heiress. Some ending in a mute *e*, are associated with them; they take *ess* instead of *e*: advocate — advocatess; ogre — ògress (from the French *ogre*, from the Latin *Orcus*, whence the Anglosaxon *orc*=goblin); prince — princess (French *princesse*); duke — duchess (Old-English *duchesse*, Old-French *ducesse*, *duchoise*, *ducheise*); Old-English *constable* — *constablesse*. Some substantives, which in the masculine gender end in a **vowel**, annex the feminine termination *ess*, to it: Jew — Jewess; Hebrew — Hebrewess; hero — heroess (rarely alongside of *heroine*). In negro — negress (French *négresse*, from *négre*) the *o* of the masculine is not regarded, as in votary — votaress the *y*.

With the feminine formation of names of persons in *or*, *er* those ending in *tor*, *dor*, as well as in *ter*, *der*, are to be distinguished.

Those in *or*, *er* assume *ess* in the feminine, like those above named, commonly without further change of form: author — authoress; mayor — mayoress; prior — prioress; warrior — warriouresse in Spenser; tailor — tailoress; archer — archeress; avenger — avengeress; peddler — peddleress; farmer — farmeress; diviner — divineress; Old-English has more of these forms, as *charmeresse*, *jangleresse* &c.

Substantives in *er-or*, *cr-er*, to which even some in *ur-er* are joined, throw off their masculine termination *or*, *er*, before the termination *ess*: conqueror — conqueress; adulterer — adulteress; murderer — murderess; sorcerer — sorceress; caterer — cateress; fosterer — fostress; (B. JONSON); procurer — procuress; treasurer — treasureress. Even governor casts off *or* in governess; emperor has empress (Old-English *emperice*, compare Old-French *empereres*, *empereor* — *empereris*, *empereis*).

Masculine names of persons in *tor*, *dor*, *ter* (*ster*) *der* with the assumption of the feminine termination *ess* usually cast out the *o* or *e* preceding the *r*, ending therefore in *tress* and *dress*: inventor — inventress; inheritor — inheritress; in-

structor — instructress; emulator — emulatress; editor — editress; executor — executress; exactor — exactress; actor — actress; auditor — auditress; orator — oratress; mediator — mediatress; monitor — monitress; nomenclator — nomenclatress; legislator — legislatress; rector — rectress; preceptor preceptress; proprietor — proprietress; protector protectress; fautor — fautress; fornicator — fornicatress; traitor — traitress; director — directress; detractor — detractress; solicitor — solicitress; suitor — suitress; spectator — spectatress; coadjutor — coadjutress; competitor — competitress; conductor — conductress; creator — creatress and others; enchanter — enchantress; arbiter — arbitress; minister — ministress; waiter — waitress (rare); chanter — chantress; comforter — comfortress; hunter (Anglosaxon *hunta*) — huntress, Old-English *hunteresse* (CHAUCER). To these words are added some original feminines in *ster*, now treated as masculines: seampster, sempster — seamstress, sempstress (compare Anglosaxon *seámere*, *sartor* — *seámostre*, *sartrix*); songster — songstress (compare Anglosaxon *sangere*, *cantor* — *sangestre*, *cantatrix*); huckster — huckstress (compare Danish *höker*, Swedish *hökare* — Danish *hökerske*, Swedish *hökerska*). — Master has mistress (Old-English *maister* — *maistresse*, Old-French *maistre maistresse*).

ambassador, ambassador — ambassadress, ambassadress; offender — offendress (SHAKSPEARE); founder foundress; commander — commandress. Alongside of the feminine *launder* (Old-English *lavender*, *laundre* in *Palsgrave*, French *lavendière*) a new feminine *laundress* has been formed, which has been the occasion of the masculine *launderer*.

Words in *tor* have in part, along with the feminine *tress* the Latin termination *trix*, as: *inheritrix*, *executrix*, *oratrix*, *mediatrix*, *monitrix*, *rectrix*, *protectrix*, *spectatrix*; in part they have only the latter, as the less popular: *adjutor* — *adjutrix*; *administrator* — *administratrix*; *arbitrator* — *arbitratrix*; *testator* — *testatrix* and some others. Some have even assumed the mere *ess* (therefore *toress*), although they are wont to have the collateral form *tress*: *victor* — *victoress* (SPENSER), *victrice* (B. JONS.) and *victress* (SHAKSPEARE); *elector* — *electoress*, *electress*; *tutor* — *tutoress* and *tutress*; *doctor* — *doctoress*, *doctress*.

A final *t* has been the occasion for the termination *tress* instead of *tess* in: *poet* — *poetress* (see above), *architect* — *architectress*. To neatherd the feminine *neatress* has been formed (compare Anglosaxon *geneát*, *bubulcus*).

Marquis, marquess (Old-English *markis*, Old-French *mar-*

chis, markis) has the feminine marchioness (from the Medieval-Latin marchio, Old-English markisesse (CHAUCER).

- β) Names of beasts are rarely distinguished by a derivative termination.

The Anglosaxon feminine termination *en* has been preserved in fox — vixen, (Anglosaxon fox — fixen, compare vulf — vylpen).

Some have the feminine termination *ess*: lion — lioness, tigre — tigress (French tigresse); imitations are hardly ventured upon for other mammals. Of birds belongs here eagle eagless.

- 3) The distinction of the male and the female sex by a formal difference in the substantives does not go far enough for the necessities of speech. There is a great number of them, even among those capable of a feminine formation, which must be regarded as double-gendered, even when having an originally masculine derivative termination. Here belong, for example: parent, child, cousin, servant, slave, neighbour, companion, friend, enemy, favourite, darling, rival, heir (she is heir of Naples [SHAKESPEARE TEMP.], orphan, thief, fool, novice &c.; astronomer, painter, flatterer, weaver, teacher, dancer &c.; apologist, botanist &c., as well as the great number of names of beasts, and in general all substantives denoting animal beings and not distinguished by their meanings or by forms of gender. The gender of such words may be known partly by a feminine proper name, partly by their reference to a personal or possessive pronoun, as in: The *slave* loves *her* master (L. BYRON). *She* is a *peasant* (LONGFELLOW): or the contrary to such a one: *She* loves *her* cousin; such a love was deemed incestuous (BRYANT). But if the object is to make the natural gender perceivable by the substantive immediately, this is done in various ways:

- α) by union with a prefixed or suffixed substantive.

The sex of human beings is distinguished by *man* and *maid* or *woman*: man-servant, maid-servant; maid-child (LEVITIC.), compare Anglosaxon mancild and mædencild, Old-English also knave child (CHAUCER), even man-midwife; servant-man, servant-maid; washer-woman. Words like: kinsman, kinswoman; dustman, dustwoman; milkman, milk-maid, fish-wife, fish-woman &c., with which moreover we may compare Anglosaxon compounds like: læringmann, læringmæden; discipulus, discipula, do not belong to the same category, man, woman not standing to distinguish the gender of their preceding determining word, that is, not in direct relation to it. Sometimes such a determination of sex stands without a contrary, as fisherman.

To distinguish the sex of animals, in mammals *dog* and *bitch* serve of the canine race; *buck* and *doe* of stags, rabbits and hares; *boar* and *sow* of pigs; *colt* and *filly* of foals; sometimes sexual terms are denoted by human proper names, more rarely by names of kinds of persons: dog-fox, bitch-fox;

(by dog-ape a particular sort of ape is denoted); even the masculine bee is called dog-bee (HALLIWELL s. v.); roebuck, buck-goat, buck-rabbit, buck-hare, buck-coney; doe-rabbit &c; boar-pig, sow-pig; colt-foal, filly-foal; — Jackass; Jennyass, Jinnyass; Tomcat; Tib-cat (Tibby = Isabella); the northern dialects still have carl-cat, like the Anglosaxon, which used carl (mas) and cvên (uxor) of mammals and birds: carlcatt, catus; carlfugol, avis mas; cvênfugol, avis femina. Maiden cat is also quoted for a she-cat. She else commonly bears the pet-name puss, pussy.

Bird are sexually distinguished by *cock* and *hen*; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; cock-partridge, hen-partridge; peacock, peahen; turkey-cock, turkey-hen (turkey alone denotes this animal). In gor-cock, gor-hen; moor-cock, moor-hen, the sexual determination perhaps takes place, but not in the direct relation.

- ♢) by the prefixed adjectives *male* and *female*, which are referred to mankind as well as to brutes, when however used as substantives not compounded, mostly of brutes: male-child, female-child; male-servant, female-servant; male descendants, female descendants; female anchoret; male cat, female cat; male fish, female fish; used as substantives: the male of the roe; the female of the horse; the male of the turkey; the female of the turkey. So the French use *male* and *femelle*.

- γ) by the pronouns *he* and *she*, which are prefixed to names of brutes, more rarely of men: he-bear, she-bear; he-deer, she-deer; he-goat, she-goat; he-animal; she-ass &c. The more noble speech hardly uses these pronouns of men; we find: she-neighbour, she-friend, she-slave (LADY MONTAGUE), as well as she-devils (BULWER); in poets facetious expressions of this sort, as: Be brief, my good *she Mercury* (SHAKESPEARE Merry Wives). *She* is otherwise, when, added to names of persons, it operates as an expression of contempt: The *she-king*, That less than woman (L. BYRON Sardanap.). The pardon'd slave of *she Sardanapalus* (IB.).

It is readily understood that there are also substantives, particularly names of persons, which can only be referred to the one or the other natural sex, without particularly indicating this by their form. Thus substantives pointing to activities or qualities belonging only to men are of course of one gender, as well as conversely those, relating to activities or qualities pertaining only to the female sex. Compare: pope, pontiff, parson, knight, champion, general, corporal, Cyclops, Triton &c. with matron, virgin, courtesan, concubine, muse, syren, Naiad, Nymph, Fury, houri &c., the enumeration whereof has a mere lexicographical interest.

For names of beasts which are comprehended under one common grammatical gender, feminine or masculine, see under *b*.

Names of things are rarely regarded as masculine or feminine substantives in common speech and writing. Yet the *sun* (Anglosaxon *sunne*, *fem.*) appears regularly, as even in Old-English *sonne*, *sonne masculine*, as in Gothic *sunna*, alongside of the feminine *sunnô*, in Old-Highdutch *sunno* alongside of *sunnâ* and sometimes Middle-Highdutch *sunne*, although also feminine. The Old-French *soleil*, *solol masc.* may here not have been without influence. There are however found instances, even in Old-English, in which the sun appears feminine: And lo! how the *sonne* gan louke *Hire* light in *hirselve* (PIERS PLOWCHM. p. 384). The *moon* and the *sterren* with *hire bereth* the *sonne* bright (WRIGHT Popul. Treatises on Science 1841. p. 132.). The moon, *moon* (Anglosaxon *môna*, *masc.*) is regularly *feminine* in Modern-English, as in Old-English, departing from all old-Germanic tongues, in Danish *maane* is masculine and feminine, in Middle-Highdutch *mâne* rarely feminine, in Hollandish *maan* has become feminine; the Old-French *lune* may have cooperated here. The different names of ships are also, at least in technical nautical language, treated as *feminine*, as *ship* (Anglosaxon *scip*, *neutr.*), *vessel* (Old-French *vessel*, *veissiaus masc.*), *boat* (Anglosaxon *bât*, *masc.*), *brigantine*, *brig*, *frigate*, *three-decker &c.*, and even *merchantman*, *Indiaman*, *man-of-war &c.*, as ships, even when bearing a masculine proper name, are used *femininely*; thus even in Shakspeare: *Bring her* to try with main course (Temp. 1. 1.). *Lay her* aboard; *lay her* off (ib.). Where we, in all *her* trim, freshly beheld our royal, good, and gallant *ship* (ib. 5, extr.). — The stability of the *ship*, and the strength of *her* masts (CHAMBERS). *She* was a small *schooner*, at anchor, with *her* broadside towards us (W. IRVING) The *Bellerophon* (ship of war) dropt *her* stern anchor in the starboard bow of the *Orient* (SOUTHEY). The *Majestic* (ship of war), Captain Westcott, got entangled . . but *she* swung clear (ib.). In Old-English, at least in Chaucer, a ship bears a feminine name: His *barge* yclepud was the *Magdelayne* (C. T. 412.); *barge* is certainly originally feminine. In King Horne 123. it is seemingly neutral: *that ship*, yet that is not referred to neuters alone; compare on *that other side* (CHAUCER C. T. 113.); *that lusty sexoun* of *that May* (ib. 2486.). Compare also a place, in which the ship is masculine: And *þif a schipp* passed be *tho marches*, *that* hadde *outhir iren bondes* . . *he* scholde ben *perisscht* (MAUNDEV. p. 163.). Outside of nautical language ship passes moreover as a neuter; as a masculine it is also found with a reference to a masculine denomination: *Commodore* also denotes the *convoy ship* . . *who* carries a light in *his* top (MOORE Mariner's Vocabulary). But the people apprehend inanimate things which they handle, and with which they are familiar as objects of their predilection, as feminine beings, for instance, the miller his mill. For the usage of the nobler language see below.

- b) The *neuter* gender comprises in general all lifeless objects, and even animal beings, when considered without regard to their sex. The language of poets and the nobler prose, even the language of the people deviates from this; since, on the one hand, the domain of poetical and rhetorical personification has been little limited in the English tongue since its first development; on the other hand, the recollection of the original gender of Anglosaxon as well as of Romance forms has kept itself more or less obscure; but poetry, as well as prose, frequently follows the more general apprehension.

Concrete names of things stand here in the first rank: The *sea* has *its* pearls, The *heaven* has *its* stars: But my *heart* . . has *its*

love (LONGFELLOW). Even abstract and collective terms are thus considered: Clamorous *labor* Knocked with *its* hundred hands at the golden gates of the morning (ID.). *Humanity* with all *its* fears (ID.). The freighted vessels departed, Bearing a *nation*, with all *its* household goods, into exile (ID.).

Names of beasts of all sorts are in a general sense treated as neuters: The conductor of the *elephant*, who is usually mounted on *its* neck (MAVOR). In *its* natural state the *hedgehog* is nocturnal, remaining coiled up in *its* retreat by day (CHAMBERS). The brown *rat* made *its* first appearance in Paris about the middle of the eighteenth century (ID.). The domestic *pigeon* is wonderfully prolific: *it* lays two eggs &c. (MAVOR). That *bird* is called the *cross-bill*. In the groves of pine *it* singeth Songs, like legends, strange to hear (LONGFELLOW).

Even names of children, as child and, strange to say, even boy, are regarded as neuters: 'This Fancy's *child*, and *Folly* is *its* father (COTTON). A simple *child*. . . What should *it* know of death? (WORDSWORTH). She was always extravagantly fond of this *boy*, and a most sensible, sweet tempered creature *it* is (FIELDING). It is to be understood, that, with reference to the natural gender the corresponding pronoun is referred to it: We shall behold our *child* once more: *She* is not dead! (LONGFELLOW).

It is most remarkable, when beings conceived as feminine, as the Hydra, are taken as neuter: You must strike, and suddenly, Full to the *Hydra's* heart — *its* heads will follow (L. BYRON).

In Old-English the neuter of the pronoun (*hit*, *it*), to distinguish which from the masculine in its possessive genitive (*his*) is certainly not possible, is already often transferred to names of things, abstract nouns, and names of beasts of genders originally different: Thi lufty *chere* makes my hert glad, And many a time so has *it* gart [made] (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 37.). Egeus That knew this *worldes* transmutacioun, As he hadde seen *it* torne up and down (CHAUCER 2840.). Theseus hath i-sent After a *beer* (Anglosaxon *bær* fem.; *feretrum*), and *it* al overspradde With cloth of golde (IB. 2872.). The long peper (Anglosaxon *pipor*, m.) comethe first . . and *it* is lyche the chattes of haselle (MAUNDEV. p. 168.). But Cristes *lore* . . He taught, and ferst he folwed *it* himselve (CHAUCER 529.). If that sche sawe a *mous* Caught in a trappe, if *it* were deed or bledde (IB. 144.).

The departures from the more general processes just exhibited deserve a more particular consideration, although giving little support to the establishment of a fixed rule. It is, however, not without interest to pursue in their various classes the glimmerings of the original genders of substantives now for the most part treated as sexless from the more abstract manner of expression. The hitherto deficient observation of the genders of substantives in popular dialects would render the consideration of them more instructive

- 1) Names of beasts must in the first place be discriminated from the rest of substantives. They often appear in poetry, and even in prose, and in common life in the masculine or feminine gender, if the general name of the beast is used to denote both natural

genders (genus epicœnum). Here it is not alone the peculiarly poetical manner of viewing, which attributes the masculine gender to the strong or the powerful, the feminine to the smaller and the lovely, but the Anglosaxon and Old-French gender is often regarded. Even works upon natural history frequently retain the masculine, less so the feminine names of beasts.

α) **Mammals and reptiles** are mostly assigned to the masculine gender, as genus epicœnum, as in the Germanic tongues generally. Thus even the general *beast* (Old-French *beste*, f.) as well as other original feminines, is early assimilated to the masculine: The *beast* is laid down in *his* lair (COWPER). Old-English: And whan a *beste* is deed, *he* ne hath no payne (CHAUCER 1321.). So commonly *elephant* (Latin *elephas*, Anglosaxon *elp*, elpend, m.); *elk* (Old-norse *elgr*, m., Middle-Highdutch *elch*); *ape* (Anglosaxon *apa*, m.); *ass*. (Anglosaxon *assa*, m., -e, f.); *otter* (Anglosaxon *otor*, *ottyr*, m.); *lion* (French m.); *lamb* (Anglosaxon n.); *rat* (Anglosaxon *rät*, Old-Highdutch *rato*, m.); even *roe* (Anglosaxon *rä*, f.): Like the *roe* when *he* hears . . the voice of the huntsman (LONGFELLOW); *panther* (Greek-Latin *panther*, m., but Latin -era, French -ère, f.): The forest's leaping *panther* . . Shall yield *his* spotted hide (BRYANT); *bison* French m., Old-Highdutch *wisant*, m.): In these plains The *bison* feeds no more . . yet here I meet *His* ancient footprints (BRYANT); *beaver* (Anglosaxon *bēfer*, m.); *bear* (Anglosaxon *bēra*, m.); *baboon* (Medieval-Latin *baboynus*, m., French *babouin*, m.); *fox* (Anglosaxon m.); *wolf* (Anglosaxon *vulf*, m.); *whale* (Anglosaxon *hval*, m.); *tiger* (Latin gen. comm. French m.); *dog* (Old-norse *doggr*, m.); *dormouse* (see *mûs*, f.?). *sloth* (compare Anglosaxon *släwð* = *pigritia*, f.): The *sloth* . . *He* lives upon the leaves . . of trees (PERCIVAL); *steed* (Anglosaxon *stēda*, m.); *squirrel* (Old-French *escurel*, m.); *sheep* (Anglosaxon *scæp*, n.); *calf* (Anglosaxon *cealf*, n.); *catamount* (wild cat, Anglosaxon *catt*, m.); The . . *catamount*, that lies High in the boughs to watch *his* prey (BRYANT); *goat* (Anglosaxon *gāt*, es, m.); *hors* (Anglosaxon n.); *hyena* (Latin French f.): I have seen the *hyena's* eyes of flame And heard at my side *his* stealthy tread (BRYANT); — *asker*, dialectically a lizard (from *âŕexe*, with a masculine termination); *lizard* (French m.): The *lesarde* . . sayd that *he* must . . ley all in the dust (SKELTON 1, 365.); *newt* and *eft* (Anglosaxon *efete*, m.?). *basilisk* (*βασίλισκος*, m.); *blindworm* (Anglosaxon *vurm*, m.); although *worm* itself is also sometimes feminine; *frog* (Anglosaxon *frocca*, *frogga*, m.): The *frog* has changed *his* yellow vest (Dr. JENNER); *tortoise* (compare French *tortue*, f.); *dragon* (French m.); *serpent* (French m.); *snake* (Anglosaxon *snaca*, m.); *cayman* (French *caïman*, m.); *crocodile* (*κροκόδειλος*, m.); *chameleon* (Greek m.).

The feminine gender is rarely employed exclusively or chiefly. *Mouse* (Anglosaxon *mûs*, f.) remains also usually feminine as a general name; *hare* (Anglosaxon *hara*, m.) as in the language of hunters. So too *mole* is found (Old-norse *moldvarpa*, f.; Hollandish *mol*, m.): The *mole* 's a creature . . *she* digs i'th'dirt

(A BOOK FOR BOYS &c. 1686. p. 26.), as *mule* (Anglosaxon mūl, m., French mule, f). *Deer* (Anglosaxon deor, n.) is commonly masculine, but also feminine: Beneath a hill . . . A *deer* was wont to feed. *She* only came when on the cliffs The evening moonlight lay (BRYANT). We have moreover to notice with the sexual term, whether in point of fact the genus epicoenum is before as, or one of the natural genders is to be defined.

- β) The names of birds not only present, in comparison with the last class, as in the Germanic tongues generally, more feminines, but the usage of the genus epicoenum fluctuates much between both genders. A discrimination of the strong and great and the weak and lovely is here scarcely considered, so that usage seems to be without any sure support. Even the general names *bird* (Anglosaxon bridd, m.) and *fowl* (Anglosaxon fugol, m.) and those compounded therewith, are sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine in the genus epicoenum: The *bird* has sought *his* tree (BRYANT); The *mocking-bird* . . . Shook from *his* little throat such floods of delirious music &c. (LONGFELLOW); As the hunter's horn Doth scare the timid stag, or bark of hounds The *moor-fowl* from *his* mate (ID.); and on the otherhand: The wild beast from *his* cavern sprang, The wild *bird* from *her* grove (WHITTIER); A bird Betrays *her* nest, by striving to conceal it (L. BYRON); But the *seafowl* is gone to *her* nest (COWPER). We find both among the larger fowls: *eagle* (French aigle, m.); *owl* (Anglosaxon ūle, f.); *raven* (Anglosaxon hrāfen, m.); *hawk* (Anglosaxon hafuc, m.); *pelican* (French m.); *stork* (Anglosaxon storc, m.); *swan* (Anglosaxon svan, m.); as well as among the smaller ones: *dove* (Anglosaxon dūfe, f.); *lark* (Anglosaxon lāverce, f.); *throstle* (Anglosaxon prosthle?); *thrush* (Anglosaxon pryscē, m.); *sparrow* (Anglosaxon spearva, m.); *starling*, *stare* (Anglosaxon stār, m.); *cuckoo* (French coucou, m.); *swallow* (Anglosaxon svaleve, f.); even *nightingale* (Anglosaxon nihtegale, f.) and others, used masculinely and femininely: The royal *eagle* draws *his* vig'rous young (THOMSON). Jealous as the *eagle* Of *her* high aiery (L. BYRON). Mourn not for the *owl*, nor *his* gloomy plight (BARRY CORNWALL). The moping *owl* does . . . complain Of such as . . . Molest *her* ancient solitary reign (GRAY). That *raven* . . . Curse on *his* ill-betiding croak! (GRAY). A thing O'er which the *raven* flaps *her* funeral wing (L. BYRON). When a *hawk* hits *her* prey (HALLIWELL s. v. ruff. cf. SKELTON 1, 157.). Ask of the bleeding *pelican* why *she* Hath ripp'd *her* bosom? (ID.). The *swan* . . . rows *her* state with oary feet (MILTON). The *stock-dove* . . . cooes oft ceasing from *his* plaint (THOMSON). A *dove*, sent forth . . . to spy Green tree or ground, whereon *his* foot may light (MILTON). To hear the *lark* begin *his* flight (MILTON). The *throstle* with *his* note so true (SHAKESPEARE Mids. N. Dr.). The *threstyl* with *her* warblyng, The *starlyng* with *her* brabbling (SKELTON 1, 65). And the *night-sparrow* trills *her* song (BRYANT). The *cuckoo* returns from *her* flight (ANON.). The *swallow* . . . to build *his* hanging house Intent (THOMSON) &c.

Yet a number of names of birds are certainly used chiefly masculinely, sometimes not according to their original gender; among them the names of larger, but also many smaller birds: *ostrich* (French *autruche*, f.); *bittern* (French *butor*, m.); *vulture* (Lat. French m.); *cormorant* (French m.); *heron* (French m.); *kite* (Anglosaxon *cita*, m.); *rook* (Anglosaxon *rôc*, m.); *jay* (French *geai*, m.); *parrot* (French *perroquet*, m.); — *oriole* (French *aureole*, f.): The *oriole* should build and tell *His* love-tale close beside my cell (BRYANT); *martlet*, *martinet* (French *martelet*, *martinet*, m.); *redbreast*, *robin redbreast*, *robin*; *finch*, *bullfinch* (Anglosaxon *finc*, m.) and others; *grouse* (Cymric *grugos*, heath; *grug-iar* = grouse, heathcock): The *grouse* that wears A sable ruff around *his* mottled neck (BRYANT).

The boundary is here hard to determine. As feminines we find: *partridge* (French *perdrix*, f.); *philomel* (Latin French f.); *turtle* (Anglosaxon *turtle*, f.) and many others, especially small birds: The white-winged *plover* wheels *her* sounding flight (THOMSON). Far from *her* nest the *lapwing* cries away (SHAKESPEARE Com. of Err.). The *mauys* with *her* whystele (French *mauvis*, m.) (SKELTON 1, 64.). The *wren* that dips *her* bill in water (Anglosaxon *vrenna*, m.) (BRYANT), and many more, even the fabulous *phoenix* (Latin m.) has been feminine from the most ancient time.

- γ) The names of fish, of which in general only a few, and those mostly the larger ones, have to be considered, incline towards the masculine gender, as the general word fish (Anglosaxon *fisc*, m.) may pass for masculine, although it is also used femininely: To see the *fish* Cut with *her* golden oars the silver stream (SHAKESPEARE Much Ado ab. Noth). So too in other Germanic tongues the larger and better known are mostly of the masculine gender; in English they are termed by far the most frequently neutrals (it). For instance, we find *eel* (Anglosaxon *æl*, m.); *pike* (from the Anglosaxon *pîc* = *acicula*, compare French *brochet*, a spit, m.); *perch*, *perch* (Latin *perca*, f., French *perche*, f., but Anglosaxon bears, m.); *trout* (French *truite*, f., Anglosaxon *truht*, f., *tructa*); *salmon* (French *saumon*, m., Latin *salmo*, m.); *shark* (Latin *carcharus*, Greek *καρχαρις*) and some more.
- δ) With regard to the names of low kinds of beasts, which are wont to be defined as worms, insects and the like, the manner of regarding them as a genus *epicoenum* is still more undecided, and sexlessness frequent. Thus, for instance, *worm* (Anglosaxon *vurm*, *vyrm*, m.) appears sometimes as a masculine, sometimes feminine: The *glow-worm* lights *his* gem (THOMSON). Thou dost teach the *coral-worm* To lay *his* mighty reefs (BRYANT). Why ev'n the *worm* at last disdains *her* shattered cell (L. BYRON); like the bee, *bee* (Anglosaxon *beo*, f.): The *bee* . . loads *his* yellow thighs For thee (BRYANT). The *bee* with honied thigh, That at *her* flowery work doth sing (MILTON); and the *butterfly* (Anglosaxon *butterfleoge*, f.): The idle *butterfly* Should rest *him* there (BRYANT); the emmet, *ant* (emmet, Anglosaxon

æmete, f.) and others. Yet others prefer the masculine gender originally belonging to them, as *beetle* (Anglosaxon *bētel*, m.); *spider* (spinner); *cricket* (French *criquet*, m.); *insect* (French m.); *mosquito* (Spanish m.); and even primitive feminines like *wasp* (Anglosaxon *vāps*, *vesp*, f.); *fly* (Anglosaxon *flēoge*, f.); *snail* (Anglosaxon *snæg*, f.); of crustacea *shell-fish* remains masculine, as *lobster* (Anglosaxon *loppestre*, f.); *oyster* (French *huître*, f.) and others are becoming.

- 2) Other concrete names of things, which, alongside of their neuter conception, appear in the masculine or the feminine gender, can hardly be comprised under general points of view. It is frequently arbitrary, and the occurrence of one gender alone is hard to guarantee, but the original gender is often retained.

- " The names of the world, the heavenly bodies, the earth, and the elements of its surface, are often masculine or feminine. *Chaos* (Greek-Latin n., French m.) is of two genders; *world* (Anglosaxon *veorold*, f.); *nature* (French f.); *universe* (French m.) are feminine. *Heaven* (Anglosaxon *heofon*, m.) is sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine, of the names of stars *star* (Anglosaxon *steorra*, m.) remained commonly masculine, although not without exception: Now the bright *morning-star* . . leads with her The flowery May (MILTON); as also comet (Greek Latin m., French f.); feminine on the other hand planet (French f.). For *son* and *moon* see above p. 248.

The earth, *earth* (Anglosaxon *eorðe*, f.) remained feminine, as expressions for its surface remained or became, as *plain* (French *plaine*, f.); *vale*, *valley* (French f.); *soil* (French *sol*, *seuil*, m.); so too *land* and *island* (Anglosaxon *land*, n.): Never shall the land forget How gushed the life-blood of her brave (BRYANT). He arose To raise a language, and his land reclaim From the dull yoke of her barbaric foes (L. BYRON). God bless the seabeat *island*! And grant . . That charity and freedom dwell . . upon her shore (WHITTIER); Old-English has treated *land* also as masculine (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER 1, 1.). *Country* also remains feminine (Old-French *contreie*, f.), as *republic* (Latin French f.) and *nation* (French f.), to which *state* (Latin French m.) is joined: There you saved the state; then live to save her still (L. BYRON). Conformably to these the proper names of quarters of the world and countries, as, Europe, Afric, Italy, Egypt, Albion, Russia, Poland, France, Spain &c. are likewise feminine. The terms for towns are also feminine, as, *city* (Old-French *cite*, f.); *capital* (French f.); to which *castel* (French m.) is assimilated: And Belgium's capital had gather'd then Her Beauty and her Chivalry (L. BYRON) and thence also their proper names: Our late-burnt *London*, in apparel new, Shook off her ashes (WALLER † 1687). *Delphi*, when her priestess sung &c. (L. BYRON). I lived and toil'd a soldier and a servant Of *Venice* and her people (ID.). Here *Ehrenbreitstein* with her shatter'd wall (ID.). — Names of heights are masculine, as, *mountain* (French f.); *hill* (Anglosaxon m.); *peak* (French *pic*, m.), although proper names of mountains are often feminine

as Aetna, Jura, Ardennes: And still *his* honied wealth *Hymettus* yields (L. BYRON). *Vesuvius* . . whose fount of fire, Outgushing, drowned the cities on *his* steep (BRYANT). *Kearsage* Lifting *his* Titan forehead to the sun (WHITTIER). On the other hand: And *Jura* answers, through *her* misty shroud, Back to the joyous Alps, who call to *her* aloud (L. BYRON). And *Ardennes* waves above them *her* green leaves (ID.). The *desert* is masculine (French m.), and the *meadow* (Anglosaxon meadu, m.); on the other hand the *beach* (?) is usually feminine.

The *sea* (Anglosaxon sæ, m. and f.) has remained of two genders, hence perhaps *ocean* (Greek Latin French m.), although frequently masculine, is also used femininely, and even *deep* (Anglosaxon deope, f. — mare profundum), mostly feminine, also masculinely: When at thy call, Uprises the great *deep* and throws *himself* Upon the Continent (BRYANT). Hence *single seas* are sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine: Again the *Aegean* . . Lulls *his* chafed breast from elemental war (L. BYRON), and: The spouseless *Adriatic* mourns *her* lord (ID.). The *lake* (Anglosaxon lacu, ?), Modern-Highdutch die lache) is feminine, as well as the *wave* (Anglosaxon væg, m., compare woge, f.); the *drop* (Anglosaxon dropa, m.) masculine: Like a *drop* of water . . Who . . confounds *himself* (SHAKSPEARE Com. of Err.), as well as, the *flood* (Anglosaxon flôd, n. = flumen). Thus too the *river* (French f.) is apprehended masculinely: The swelling *river*, into *his* green gulfs . . Takes the redundant glory (BRYANT), like the bay (French baie, f.): Where *his* willing waves yon bright blue *bay* Sends up (ID.) and proper names of rivers likewise mostly pass as masculine: *Thames* (Anglosaxon Temese, f.), the most loved of all the Ocean's sons By *his* old sire, to his embraces runs (JOHN DENHAM † 1668). Nor *Ouse* on *his* bosom their image receives (COWPER). Mid the dark rocks that watch *his* bed Glitters the mighty *Hudson* spread (BRYANT). Dark *Guadiana* rolls *his* power along In sullen billows (L. BYRON). Where the quick *Rhone* has cleft *his* way (ID.). Yet *Lethe* (MILTON), the English river *Isis*, the *Brenta* (BYRON) and others are also found used femininely.

- Localities of another sort are the *grave* (Anglosaxon gräf, n.), which has become feminine, as *hell* (Anglosaxon hell, f.) has remained, while *Tartarus* has retained its masculine gender.
- β) *Light*, *air*, *wind* and *appearances* in the atmosphere are personified rhetorically: *light*, twilight (Anglosaxon leôht, lîht, n.), have become feminine, *dawn* has continued so (Old-norse dagan f.). The *ray* (Old-French rais, m.) remains masculine, and the *fire* becomes so too, (Anglosaxon fyr, n.): Alone the *fire* . . Gathers *his* annual harvest here (BRYANT). *Air* (French m.) has become feminine; likewise the *cloud* (Anglosaxon clûd, m. = rupes) and *welkin* (Anglosaxon volcen, n.): By *welkin* and *her* stars (SHAKSPEARE Merry Wives). On the other hand the terms for *winds* have remained masculine: *wind* (Anglosaxon vind, m.); *storm* (Anglosaxon m.): With thee on high the *storm* has made *his* airy seat (BRYANT); *zephyr* (Latin French m.):

The *zephyr* stoops to freshen *his* wings (ID.); *tornado* (Spanish m.): Till the strong *tornado* broke *his* way Through the *gray* giants of the sylvan wild (ID.), as also *gale* (Old-norse gola, f.) is found masculine. The name of the quarter of heaven put in the place of the wind, *north* (Anglosaxon norð, m.); *east* (Anglosaxon m.), often retains its gender: And the loud *north* again shall buffet the vexed forest in *his* rage (BRYANT); but not without exception: When the recreant *north* has forgotten *her* trust (WHITTIER). *Thunder* (Anglosaxon punor, m.) remains masculine.

- γ) **Plants and minerals** often remain true to their original gender. The names of *trees*, as *tree* (Anglosaxon treov, n.) even fluctuate. We find in the masculine *oak* (Anglosaxon āc, f.), *elm* (Anglosaxon m.) and *elm-tree*, *sumach*, *pine* (Anglosaxon pinn, ?), *tulip*, *tuliptree* (French tulipier, m.); but compare: The *tuliptree* . . . Opened . . . *her* multitude of golden chalices (BRYANT); also *alley* (French allée, f.) is masculine, whereas *wood* (Anglosaxon vudu, m.) commonly appears as feminine. Other plants, especially flowering ones, mostly remain feminine, or pass into this gender. Here belong *ivy* (Anglosaxon ifig, m.), which however is also found in the masculine: A dainty plant is the *ivy* green . . . of right choice food are *his* meals [DICKENS], *vine* (Anglosaxon vin, n.), *grape* (French f.), which also stands for the plant; *eglantine* (French f.), *viburnum* (Latin n.): The *viburnum* . . . to the sun holds up *Her* circlet of green berries (BRYANT); *spice-bush* (Medieval-Latin buscus, m.): The *spice-bush* lifts *her* leafy lances (ID.); *liverleaf* (Anglosaxon leáf, n.): The *liverleaf* put forth *her* sister blooms (ID.); *mistletoe* (Anglosaxon mistelsta, f.), *rose*, *primrose* (French rose, f.), *lily* (Anglosaxon lilje, f.), which, however, is also masculine; *lotus* (Greek Latin m. and f.): The *lotus* lifted *her* golden crown (LONGFELLOW); *cowslip* (Anglosaxon lippa, m.), *gentian* [*flower*] (Latin f.) &c. Among the metals we find *silver* (Anglosaxon silfor, n.) left in the feminine; among the precious stones *ruby* (French rubis, m.), *sapphire* (French saphir, m.) in the masculine. Even *dust* (Anglosaxon n.), is so met with.
- δ) Among the members of the animal body the *hand* (Anglosaxon f.) remains feminine, whereas the *eye* (Anglosaxon eage, n.): Dark night that from the *eye* *his* function takes (SHAKESPEARE); as well as the *nose* (Anglosaxon nasu, f.): Whenever the *nose* put *his* spectacles on (COWPER), are used as masculines. The *heart* (Anglosaxon heorte, f.) is, mostly in a figurative sense, of two genders. The *lap* (Anglosaxon lappa, m.), strictly used of the clothing, is feminine: The flowery *lap* of some vigorous valley spread *her* store (MILTON).
- ε) **Human works and tools** are seldom considered. Of edifices *dome* is masculine (French m.), *tower* fluctuates (French tour f., Anglosaxon torr, m.). The *church*, mostly in a transferred sense (Anglosaxon cyrice, f.) remains feminine. *Hammer* (Anglosaxon hamor, m.), and *sword* (Anglosaxon sveord, n.) are treated as

masculines in poetry; the *needle* (Anglosaxon nædl, f.), *pin* (Anglosaxon pinn, ? = stylus) remains feminine. The *bottle* (French bouteille, f.) is masculine in Shakspeare Temp. 2, 2.

- 2) Among fabulous beings *sphinx* (Greek Latin f.) has remained feminine, *nightmare* (Anglosaxon maru, m.) has become so. *Fantom*, *phantom* is, like the corresponding French word, masculine.

- 3) Time and definite spaces of time for the most part persevere in their original gender. *Time* (Anglosaxon tîma, m.) is commonly, although not universally, masculine; likewise *year* (Anglosaxon gear, n.), and *day* (Anglosaxon dæg, m.). Of the Seasons *summer* (Anglosaxon sumor, m.), *winter* (Anglosaxon vinter, n.), *autumn* (French automne, m. and f.) appear frequently, although not always, masculine; compare: Who joys the *mother Autumn's* bed to crown, And bids old *Winter* lay *her* honour down? (YOUNG.). *Summer* sheds for me *her* beams (MONTGOMERY); whereas *spring* (Anglosaxon m., = fons) is usually taken as feminine: When I . . saw . . the *Spring* Come forth *her* work of gladness to contrive (L. BYRON). Among the months, *April*, *October* and others remain masculine; *May*, on the other hand, is found in the feminine: *May* with *her* cap crowned with roses (LONGFELLOW). The times of the day mostly follow the old gender: *morning*, after the feminine *evening* (Anglosaxon æfnung, f., on the other hand æfen, m.), as *morn* (Anglosaxon morgen, m.): *Morn* . . Lifts up *her* purple wing (LONGFELLOW). The meek-ey'd *Morn* . . *mother* of dews (MILTON). *night* (Anglosaxon neaht, f), *midnight* and *hour* (Old-French heure, f.) are feminine.
- 4) The wide domain of those abstract substantives, which do not represent the corporeal, if they themselves denote processes in outward nature, the expressions for states, feelings, affections, activities and essences, which fall under mental intuition, offer peculiar phenomena. At one time the feminine gender preponderates in the treatment of them as sexual beings; at another, the influence of the original gender operates with them, especially so far as it is characterised by perceptible terminations; thirdly, the Romance, hence, the Latin determination of gender is of preponderant influence in Modern-English, perhaps under the operation of classic studies, whereas more latitude prevails in Old-English. But even in Modern-English strict consistency is not to be found.
- α) If, in the first place, we consider abstract terms according to their sensuous terminations, the Romance stand in the first rank as a foundation for the genders, whereas Germanic terminations operate less universally.
- 1) Abstract terms in *y* (*ry*, *ty*, *sy*, *ory* &c.), corresponding to French feminines in *ie*, *é*, *oire* &c., are used chiefly in the feminine, as: astronomy, melancholy, modesty, poesy, fancy, folly, philosophy, jealousy, sympathy, harmony; misery, luxury, penury, poetry, flattery, slavery, chivalry; — impiety, necessity, liberty, piety,

pity, plenty, prosperity, beauty, vanity, duty, society, cruelty, charity, chastity, humility; — memory, victory, glory, history &c., also mercy (Old-French *mercit*, *mercis* f.).

Exceptionally words of this sort pass over into the masculine, as, *industry*, *poverty*, *folly*, *tyranny*, *drudgery*, *jealousy*, *conspiracy*, *knavery*, *hospitality* &c., mostly, certainly, when the image of the rough, untender or of masculine gravity inheres in the word: All is the gift of *Industry* . . . Pensive Winter, cheer'd by *him*, Sits at the social fire (THOMSON). Here *Folly* still *his* votaries intralls (L. BYRON). *Tyranny himself*, Thy enemy (BRYANT). But *Jealousy* has fled; *his* bars, *his* bolts . . . Have pass'd to darkness (L. BYRON). *Knavery* cannot . . . hide *himself* in such reverence (SHAKESPEARE Much Ado ab. N.). Open-eyed *conspiracy* *his* time doth take (ID. Temp.). In that mansion used to be freehearted *Hospitality*; *His* great fires up the chimney roared (LONGFELLOW). This is often the case in Old-English: *Theologie* Whan *he* this tale herde (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 35.); even in Skelton: If *liberte* sholde lepe and renne where *he* lyst (I. 230.). *Fansy* with *his* fonde consayte (= conceit?) (I. 247.). Thus Young calls eternity the father of time: *Eternity* *his* Sire (Night 2.).

Abstract terms in *ion* (*tion*), on remain likewise inclined to the feminine gender of their French termination (Lat. *ion-em*): opinion, oblivion, religion, decision, oppression, passion, compassion, imagination, inspiration, inquisition, ambition, affection, presumption, fiction, dissimulation, devotion, desolation, sedition, superstition, caution, consideration, corruption, creation; — fashion (Old-French *facon*, *fachon* = *factio*), reason, treason (Old-French *traison* = *traditio*) &c.

Substantives of this class are rarely used in the masculine also, as, *passion*, *contemplation*, *action* and some others: In *his* lair Fix'd *Passion* holds *his* breath (L. BYRON).

Abstract terms in *ice* (French *ice*, Latin *itia*) also remain feminine, as *avarice*, *justice*, *injustice*; although Old-English also occasionally treats these as masculine: *Covetise* (Old-French *coveitise*, *convoitise*, Latin, as if *cupiditia*) . . . caste how *he* myghte Overcome (PIERS PLOUGHMAN, p. 432.). Compare also: *Largesse* is *he* that all prynces doth auauunce (SKELTON I 234.).

Words in *ic* (French *ique*, f.) are likewise used femininely, as *magic*, *music*, *rhetoric* &c. Yet *logic* commonly appears in the masculine.

Words in *ance* and *ence* (French the same, Latin *antia*, *entia*) likewise retain regularly the feminine gender: *ignorance*, *repentance*, *temperance*, *impertinence*, *impudence*, *innocence*, *existence*, *penitence*, *pestilence*, *patience*, *prudence*, *benevolence*, *science* &c.; to which *silence* (Latin *silentium*) is added: *Silence* and *Darkness*. solemn sisters! (YOUNG N. 1.).

Yet romance, prudence, vengeance, providence, conscience and some others are also sometimes found used in the masculine: This *sir Prudence* (SHAKESPEARE Temp.). Young *Romance* raised *his* dreamy eyes (WHITTIER). And then comes *repentance*, and with *his* bad legs falls (SHAKESPEARE Much Ado ab. Noth.).

Abstract terms in *or*, *our* retain in part the masculine gender corresponding to the Latin, as error, terror, horror, honour, labour &c.; yet labour is also found feminine, and thus commonly, following their French gender, languor, splendor, and others.

Also those in *ude* (Latin *udo*) and *ure* (Latin *ura*) commonly preserve the feminine gender, as lassitude, rectitude, fortitude, servitude &c. scripture (as a concrete term), sculpture &c. To the words in *ure* is also joined future (Latin *futurum*): The cheerful *future* . . with all *her* promises and smiles (BRYANT); as well as pleasure (French *plaisir*), whereas leisure (French *loisir*) is found masculine: *Leisure*, That in trim gardens takes *his* pleasure (MILTON).

Abstract terms in *ment* (French *m.*), few of which occur determined as to gender, chiefly follow the masculine gender: contentment, atonement, astonishment &c.; but they also pass over into the feminine: Therefore . . descended the Prince of *Atonement* . . and *she* stands now . . and battles with Sin (LONGFELLOW).

- 2) Also among the more sensuous Anglosaxon derivative terminations some shew themselves effective.

Abstract substantives in *ing* (Anglosaxon *ung*, *ing*, *f.*) are used in the feminine, as: understanding, learning, feeling and some others: Why should *feeling* ever speak When thou (Music) canst breathe *her* soul so well (TH. MOORE).

Still more frequently occur substantives in *ness* (Anglosaxon *ness*, *niss*, *nyss* &c., *f.*) as feminines, as madness, lewdness, wilderness (concrete), darkness, sickness, consciousness, gentleness, cheerfulness, happiness &c. yet they partly oscillate. Compare: Where brooding *darkness* spreads *his* jealous wings (MILTON) on the other hand: Silence and *Darkness*, solemn *sisters* (YOUNG). Old-English: *Falsnesse* is fayn of hire (sc. Mede), For *he* woot *hire* riche (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 32.).

The combination of the neuter with the feminine is striking in: Not *happiness itself* makes good *her* name (YOUNG N. Th. 1.).

The few words in *dom* (Anglosaxon *dôrn*, *m.*) and *hood* (Anglosaxon *hâd*, *m.*) betray their original gender: Princely *wisdom*, then, Dejects *his* watchful eye (THOMSON) Where *manhood*, on the field of death, Strikes for *his* freedom (WHITTIER). Yet freedom (perhaps on account of its affinity of meaning with liberty) prefers the feminine gender: Thus *Freedom* now so seldom wakes, The only throb *she* gives is . . To show that still *she* lives (TH. MOORE). Where *Freedom* weeps

her children's fall (WHITTIER); so too in Byron and others. Also wisdom is feminine: *Wisdom*, . . What is *she*, but the means of Happiness? (YOUNG). The termination *ship* (Anglosaxon *scipe*, m.) so rarely of determinate gender, becomes feminine in friendship: This carries *Friendship* to her noon-tide point (YOUNG).

Substantives ending in the derived *th* (Anglosaxon *ð*), many whereof point to Anglosaxon feminines, and wherein the derivation is still sensible, have retained pretty decidedly the feminine gender, as *wealth*, *health*, *truth*, *sloth*, *youth*; to which is also added the Romance *faith*: When wanton *wealth* her mightiest deeds had done (L. BYRON). *Sloth* drew her pillow o'er her head (WHITTIER). Ere *youth* had lost her face (L. BYRON). *Faith*, *she* herself from on high is descended (LONGFELLOW). With a correct feeling the usage of the tongue separates *death* (Anglosaxon *deað*, m.) from the above words, and uses it mostly in the masculine, as Milton, Young, Byron, Longfellow &c., although it is sometimes taken as feminine; compare: The painful family of *Death* more hideous than their *queen* (GRAY). It is remarkable that the older language often deviates with regard to those feminines: *Truthe* is therinne . . he is fader of feith (PIERS PLOUPHM. p. 15.). *Sleuthe* . . An hard assaut he made (p. 438.). *Feith* . . he fleigh aside (p. 351.). *Welthe* . . wolde bere hymselfe to bolde (SKELTON l. 229.). *Sloth*, as a concrete substantive, is masculine.

- β) Abstract terms, which either have no derivative termination, or in which it is no longer felt as such by linguistic consciousness, or, finally, those whose derivative termination has no definite gender, are still frequently used in poetry as masculine or feminine. Many masculines and neuters pass over into the feminine gender, a few feminines, on the contrary, are masculine. Words of all three original genders are here and there fluctuating. We cite examples, having regard to their original gender, without respect to the distinctions of notion.
- 1) Anglosaxon masculines appear masculine: hunger, thirst, sleep, dream (Anglosaxon *dream*, m., *gaudium*), anger (Anglosaxon only *ang-niss*), fear, lust (Anglosaxon *lust*, m.; *lyst*, f.), laughter, pride, the original neuter murder and the undefineable in gender want (Old-norse *vanta*, *deesse*); likewise the Romance masculines: order, danger, character, power, use, vice, commerce, spirit, sport (Old-French *deport*, m.), despair (compare French *désespoir*). Examples: *Sleep* give thee all his rest (SHAKESPEARE *Mids. N. Dr.*). And let some strange mysterious *dream* Wave at his wings an airy stream &c. (MILTON). Next *Anger* rushed, his eyes on fire (COLLINS). First *Fear*, his hand, his skill to try, Amid the chords bewildered laid (ID.). *Laughter*, holding both his sides (MILTON). *Pride* brandishes the favours he confers (YOUNG). Wither'd murder, Alarum'd by his sentinel, the wolf (SHAKESPEARE *Macb.*). *Power* at thee has launched his bolts (BRYANT). Grey-bearded *Use* . . Leaned on his staff and wept (WHITTIER).

Son of Eternity . . the Spirit Tugs at his chains (LONGFELLOW). And *Sport* leapt up and seized *his* beechen spear (COLLINS). With woeful measures wan *Despair . . his* grief beguiled (ID.).

Yet even here transitions into the feminine gender are found, and we find, for instance: pride, fear, murder, power, vice, commerce, spirit, despair often used in the feminine: Which . . makes weariness forget his toil And *fear her* danger (L. BYRON). But here, where *Murder* breathed *her* bloody steam (ID.). *Daughter of Jove*, relentless *Power* (GRAY). Within walls *Power* dwelt *amidst her* passions (L. BYRON). *Vice* that digs *her* own voluptuous tomb (ID.). When the trembling *spirit* wings *her* flyght (ROGERS). *Despair* extends *her* raven wing (THOMSON).

Among the original feminines, which become masculine, are the Anglosaxon heat, love (perhaps not without the influence of the personification of love) care, war, the Romance fraud. Instances: Tyrant *Heat . . his* burning influence darts On man &c. (THOMSON). *Love* has no gift so grateful as *his* wings (L. BYRON). Ere *War* uprose in *his* volcanic rage (L. BYRON). And *War* shall lay *his* pomp away (BRYANT). *Fraud* from *his* secret chambers fled (WHITTIER).

Here and there we find the feminine gender, as, for instance, of war.

- 2) A number of Anglosaxon feminines commonly remain feminine, as, mind (Anglosaxon n. and f., Old-norse f.), law, rest, sin, sorrow, soul and especially Romance ones, as, revenge, rage, peace, pain, prayer, fame, form, fortune, misfortune, virtue, trade (?), disease (Old-French *desaise*), joy, concord, discord, quiet (Old-French *quiete*) and others. The transition into the masculine gender is here a rarer exception, although it occurs. Compare: The mighty *Mind*, that *son of Heav'n* (YOUNG). The eternal *mind* Who veils *his* glory with the elements (BRYANT); as often in the even in Anglosaxon double-gendered mind. *Revenge* impatient rose . . *He* threw *his* blood-stained sword in thunder down (COLLINS). Last came *Joy's* ecstatic trial: *He . . First* to the lively pipe *his* hand addressed (ID.).

Some Anglosaxon neuters pass over into the feminine gender, as, evil, life, wit, as well as some which might belong to the masculine or neuter grammatical genus, as, thought, wrong, and the masculine will, guilt, knowledge (Old-norse *kunnleiki*, m.), hope, slumber and slaughter (?). Still more numerous are the Romance masculines: art, exploit, repose, pardon, praise, fate, delight, sense, strife, carnage, crime, habit &c. The adjectives used as substantives ideal, ridicule, also words like havoc, scorn and others. Instances: Then well may *Life* Put on *her* plume (YOUNG). Hail, memory, hail! . . *Thought* and *her* shadowy brood thy call obey (ROGERS). The mark where *wrong* Aim'd with *her* poison'd arrows (L. BYRON). The ocean has *his* chart, the stars their map, And *knowledge* spreads

them on *her* ample lap (ID.). *Hope* . . Does what *she* can (LONGFELLOW). *Pardon*, clad like a *mother*, gave you *her* hand to kiss (ID.). *Praise* . . with *her* soft plume (YOUNG). Accuse . . not thy *fate* — *she* may redeem thee still (L. BYRON). God hath yoked to *guilt* *Her* pale tormentor misery (BRYANT). And *Havoc* loathes so much the waste of time, *She* scarce had left an uncommitted crime (L. BYRON).

The masculine gender appears to be here rare; compare: *Life* mocks the idle hate Of *his* arch-enemy Death (BRYANT). Old-English: *Hope* cam . . Ac whan *he* hadde sighte of that segge (= man) (PIERS PLOUGHMAN. p. 351.)

2. The Adjective.

The adjective, or word of quality, which expresses the quality inherent in an object, solely in reposing upon a substantives into the notion of which the quality is to be taken up, is for this reason both thought in unity with its substantive as regards sex, and shares its changing relations in the sentence. In the languages phonetically more complete it has therefore terminations of gender, and also marks of case, to express its unity with the substantive. Anglosaxon distinguished more or less distinctly three genders of the adjective, with which the participle, as a verbal adjective, is also to be reckoned. Old-French distinguished, at least partly, two genders by the termination. Anglosaxon distinguished a strong and a weak declension of adjectives, whose cases certainly often coincided in point of form, the comparative following however the weak declension only. Old-French still distinguished in part the nominative of the singular and of the plural from the oblique cases of the adjective. Modern-English has completely abandoned the distinction of gender, number and case by terminations, with adjectives not used substantively.

If the nature or quality which the adjective expresses is attributed absolutely to an object, the word of quality, as positive, stands in its fundamental form. If, however, that quality is attributed to one or several objects, by way of comparison, in a greater measure than to one or several objects placed over against them, this greater measure is expressed by the comparative of the word of quality, in which case two spheres only of comparison are proposed, whether the objects compared in quality belong to the same or to different classes of things. If, finally, a quality common to all objects coming under review is ascribed to one or to several of them in the greatest measure, the adjective expresses this highest measure by the superlative. The comparative and the superlative need therefore a different form from the positive. The Anglosaxon distinguished them by Suffixes, like the Latin; French, which lost the Latin suffixes down to a few traces, distinguished them by the prefixed adverbs plus, le plus. English combined both modes.

The Declension of Adjectives

In Modern-Englisch the adjective, as such, appears always in the same form: a *virtuous* man; a *virtuous* woman; *virtuous* men &c. They rather look like *vagabond* gipsies, or *stout* beggars, than *regular* troops (LADY MONTAGUE). Thus the adjective has become unknowable by its form. To this is to be ascribed the misunderstanding, by which substantives, which often appear in a loose connection before others as words of determination, are frequently cited at the same time as adjectives in dictionaries, as, gold, silver, stone &c., although it is a matter of course that substantives, in their effect as words of determination, may express the same import as the adjective combined with the substantive. In iron (Anglosaxon subst. and adjunct. *isern, iren*) the substantive certainly coincides in form with the adjective.

Anglosaxon has bequeathed hardly a trace of its case terminations even to Old-English. Here belongs, for instance: Dame, have you *godne* dai! (DAME SIRIZ p. 7.). The Anglosaxon strong form m. *gôd*, f. *gôd* (u), n. *gôd* has in the accus. sing. masc. *gôdne*. To the weak form m. -a, f. -e, n. -e, gen. &c. -an might i'th' *olden* time (SHAKESPEARE Macb. 3, 4.) be referred, since there is no Anglosaxon *alden*, but only *ald*, so that *olden* had developed itself out of the cases. On the contrary an *e*, which seems to occur more frequently with the feminine than with the masculine, has been preserved more obstinately in the adjective used in the plural, so that we can see therein a mark of distinction of the two numbers. Compare: *God* corn . . wateres he hap eke *gode* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 1.); *pe strengeste* me (= men) (l. 111.); lawes he made *ryztuollere* and *strongore* pan er were (l. 266.). A *sotil* thing — the *sotile* craftes (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 294. 297.). In *raggede* clothes (p. 204.). *Povere* men to fede (p. 273.). Of *avarouse* chapmen (p. 300.). 4 *principalle* cytees (MAUNDEV. p. 27.). Many *perilouse* passages (ib.). Many *goude* hylles and fayre (p. 127.). Into *Cristene* mennes handes (p. 104.). This comes out especially, when adjectives are used as substantives: Of alle manere of men, The *meene* and the *riche* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 2.). Amonges *povere* and *riche* (p. 274. 278.). Whan thise *wikkede* wenten out (p. 22.). Oon of Godes *chosene* (p. 209.). We may certainly consider this *e* as a remnant of the inflective termination, which in the plural of the weak declension was -an, in the strong -e, -e, -u.

Adjectives are in English, as in other tongues, also used as substantives. It is indebted for many adjectives used as substantives even to the Anglosaxon, still more to the French. Yet on the whole, among adjectives used as substantives only a small number assumes also the form of inflection of the substantive.

a) To the adjectives used as substantives which adopt these inflective forms belong mostly Romance, fewer Germanic words. Here belong:

α) those, which become personal names for a people, as Ionian, Italian, Dorian, Spartan, German, Roman, Euro-

pean &c. They are commonly already Romance or Latin substantives. Words like Scot, Greek &c., although partly occurring as adjectives, do not belong here as Anglosaxon substantives: Scottas (plur. tantum), Grêc. Even Swiss is a substantive.

Such as end in a sibilant or a hissing letter (also *ese*) do not assume the plural *s*: the Irish, the English, the French, the Dutch, the Portuguese, the Chinese, the Bengalese; on the other hand Tunguses.

Words ending in *sh* and *ch* do not occur otherwise than generalized with the article *the*, or universally negated by *no* (the Dutch; no Dutch).

Otherwise determined, or used predicatively, *man* in the singular, *men* in the plural is annexed to them: an Irishman, these Englishmen, two Frenchmen; they are Englishmen.

- β) **Names of persons**, denoting the members of a sect or party: Christian, Presbyterian, Lutheran, Stoic, Cynic, Jacobin &c. They have also mostly been taken from the Romance or Latin, as forms already used as substantives.
- γ) **Names of persons of another sort** are: impertinent, incurable, ignorant, ancient, modern, mortal, immortal, native, noble, saint, sage, criminal &c.; which are joined by a few Germanic ones, as, heathen, (Anglosaxon *hæðen*, adj.), black, white. Latin comparatives also, as inferior, superior, senior, junior, to which the Anglosaxon *elder*, *better* are added, and which we often meet with in combination with *my*: *my inferiors*, *my betters* &c.; but also otherwise: The *juniors* of their number (L. BYRON). The *elders* of his own tribe (W. SCOTT). If many of these words are found chiefly in the plural, the use of the singular is not thereby excluded, which dictionaries therefore do not hesitate to cite also as a substantive. But some are of course limited to the plural, as *commons*, *infernals* and others.
- δ) **Concrete and abstract names of things** likewise occur in the form of adjectives used as substantives, the latter indeed very commonly in the plural, like the Latin neuters of adjectives: *eatables*, *drinkables*, *combustibles*, *materials*, *mercurials*, *pentecostals*, *vitals*, *substantials*, *valuables*, *movables*, *woolens*, as the plural often stands with a particular meaning alongside of the singular: *green*, *greens*; *white*, *whites*; *sweet*, *sweets* = home-made wines, *mollasses* &c. Of abstract nouns belong here the names of sciences, as *mathematics* &c. (see p. 230.); *universals*: *Universals* have no real substance (LONGFELLOW); *dialectically* *dismals* = melancholy feelings and others. Lexicography has to bestow a particular notice upon words belonging here, which withdraws them from grammatical rules.
- ε) The great number of adjectives, especially of the Anglosaxon origin, as well as the participial forms, does not share the in-

flective capacity of the above named. Anglosaxon declines them in its own manner; the usage of the Old-English we have above observed. English has at least refused them the plural termination.

- a) Adjectives of this sort used as substantives seldom appear in the singular as **names of persons**, as is often the case in Old-English: The *poore* is but feeble (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 287.). The *poore* is ay prest To plesse the *riche* (IB.). In Modern-English the positive sometimes, but especially the superlative, is found thus used: None but the *brave* deserves the *fair* (DRYDEN). And Work of wonders far the greatest, that thy *dearest* far might bleed (YOUNG N. Th.). The great *First-Last* (ID.).

In the plural this is common, and even where the adjective used substantively does not appear as the subject of a plural verb, we mostly have to take it as a plural: The *poor* of the parish, who were ranged on benches in the aisles (W. IRVING). Yet there is one, And he amongst the *foremost* in his power (ROWE). O ye *dead*! (YOUNG). There will a *worse* come in his place (SHAKSPEARE). Yet for the *foulest* of the *foul* He dies, Most joy'd, for the *redeem'd* from deepest guilt (ID.). Thy songs were made for the *pure* and *free* (TH. MOORE). Upon the combination of the adjective with *one* see further below.

- ß) Even in the sense of the Latin **neuter** the adjective used as a substantive is employed in the singular: This my hand will rather The multitudinous seas incarnadine Making the *green* one *red* (SHAKSPEARE). Expose the *vain* of life (YOUNG). The *fathomless* of thought divine (ID.). Nor that the *worst* (ID.). Ambition makes my *little* less, Embitt'ring the *possess'd* (ID.).

The adjective used substantively, incapable of the plural formation with *s*, may however, assume the *s* of the **genitive**, both in names of persons and in the neuter, although this does not frequently happen. See p. 235. With the otherwise uninflected comparative and superlative this could hardly be the case.

The Comparison of the Adjective.

The denoting of the comparison of the adjective, that is, the formation of the **comparative** and the **superlative**, happens in two modes, the one answering to the Anglosaxon, the other to the Romance mode. The one is effected through derivational terminations, the other by the combination of the adverbs *more* and *most* with the positive.

- a) The **derivational terminations** of the comparative and superlative are *er* and *est*, which are joined to the positive: great, greater, greatest. They correspond to the Anglosaxon terminations *ir* (commonly *ēr*) and *ōr* for the comparative, *ist* (*ēst*) and *ōst* for the superlative, whose *ē* and *ō* however before the *r* in the terminations *-ra*, *-re*, *-re* almost always, often also in the

superlative, was thrown off: heard: heardra, heardre, heardre; durus: durior, durius; lang: lengra &c.; longus: longior &c.; on the other hand hefig: hefigera &c.; gravis: gravior &c.; hâlig: hâligôsta &c.; sanctus: sanctissimus &c.; strang: strengsta &c.; durus: durissimus &c.

Old-English still preserves remnants of the termination *ôr*, *ôst* alongside of *êr*, *êst*: þo þis kyng Leir *eldore* was (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 32.). þe *stalwordore* (191.). Lawes he made *ryztuollere* and *strengore* (266.). þo was he & al hys *gladdore* (358.). þys lond nede mot þe *pouerore* be (II 370.). & so þe *feblore* were (372.). þe *zongost* Cordeille (I. 29.). þe *eldoste* (105.). þe *wy-sost* kyng (266.). The forms in *o*, alongside of which those in *e* were of course constantly in use, were nevertheless soon completely lost. Instead of the termination *est*, *yst* is also found: The *manfullyste* man (PERCY Rel. p. 3. II.).

With the English forms of comparison the vowel of the stem remains unchanged: long, longer, longest. The Anglosaxon here frequently let the modification of the vowel, known in High-dutch as the Umlaut, and in Sanscrit as the *guna*, enter: strang (strong): strengra, strangôsta, strengsta; lang: lengra, lengesta, lengsta; ald, eald: yldra, yldesta.

Old-English preserved traces of this for a long time: strong, strange: strengere (MAUNDEV. p. 278.); strengore (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 266.); strengest (ID. 15.); strengeste (III.); thus also we find lang, lenger, lengest, lengost, and others. Connected with this is the shortening of long vowels of the positive, which is not justified through the Anglosaxon, as swete: swetter, swettest (Anglosaxon svêt, svêtra, svêtesta); depe: deeper, deppest (Anglosaxon deóp); grete: gretter, grettest (Anglosaxon grêat); wide: widder, widest (Anglosaxon vid); forms which we frequently meet in Piers Ploughman, Maundeville, Chaucer and others.

Modern-English has in the forms: old: elder, eldest, as well as in better, best (pointing to a positive with *a*, Anglosaxon betera, betsta), traces of the ancient vowel modification.

The changes which the English positive undergoes in the forms of comparison, are essentially of graphical nature. Words ending in a mute *e* lose it before *er* and *est*: polite, politer, politest. This is also the case in adjectives ending in *le* with a consonant preceding: able, abler, ablest. The same happens if a vowel is followed by an *e*: true, truer, truest. If an adjective ends in *y* with a consonant preceding it, *y* transmutes itself into *i*: happy, happier, happiest; not so in gay, gayer, gayest. — The simple consonant doubles itself after a short vowel of the accented syllable: big, bigger, biggest; hot, hotter, hottest. The same takes place also with *l* in an unaccented syllable: cruel, crueller, cruellest (however with an elided *e* before *l* only one *l* appears: cruel'st racks and torments [OTWAY]); cheerful, cheerfuller, cheerfullest.

The Anglosaxon forms of comparison were early transferred to Romance stems, and Old-English took no offence at the length

of the forms: *pe noblest bachelor* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 30.), *feblore* (II. 372.). *pouerore* (370.). Are no men *avarouser* than *hii* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 26.). The *marveillouseste metels* [Dream] (p. 155.). *Awntrouseste* (plus avantoureux) (MORTE ARTHURE in HALLIWELL s. v.).

Modern-English also transfers these forms to Romance stems, but, both in Anglosaxon and in Romance adjectives, has restricted the use of them more and more from euphonic reasons, although, even in prose no agreement obtains in the employment of them.

Modern-Grammarians allow the terminations of comparison to have the following classes of adjectives:

- a) to **monosyllabic** adjectives: poor, poorer, poorest; sweet, sweeter, sweetest; wise, wiser, wisest.
- β) to **disyllabic** ones, whose last syllable has the accent: genteel, genteeler, genteelest; severe, severer, severest.
- γ) to **disyllabic** ones, ending with the glib syllable formed by *le* with an initial consonant preceding it: able, abler, ablest.
- δ) to **disyllabic** ones, ending in *y* with a consonant preceding it: worthy, worthier, worthiest; lovely, lovelier, loveliest. Many of these adjectives are, by reason of their notion, not easily susceptible of comparison, especially those with the derivational termination *y* (Anglosaxon *ig*), sofar as they refer to materials, as balmy, skinny, woody, earthy &c.

We however permit those terminations also to other adjectives whose forms of comparison cause no ill sound, which certainly furnishes only an indefinite standard. But when JOHN-SON completely excludes the participial terminations *ing* and *ed*, the terminations *ive*, *id*, *ent*, *ain*, *al*, *ate*, *ous*, as well as those in *ful*, *less* and *some*, which have properly arisen through composition, from this mode of comparison, he manifestly goes too far.

As regards the **participial forms**, the comparison of adjectives in *ing* is confined to the Old-English *fittingest* (CHAUCER A. F. 551.); and rarely appears with the moderns: the *lastingst* wine (HOWELL sec. XVII.); a *cunninger* animal (GOLDSMITH Vic. of W.); but is not uncommonly in the mouth of the people. See DICKENS Master Humphrey Clock 3, 73. Fiedler's Wissenschaftliche Grammatik der englischen Sprache I. p. 246. The comparison of those in *ed* is familiar to Old-English: *Bettre* and *blesseder* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 217.). The contree is the *curseder* (p. 421.); and has not become foreign to Modern-English: The *dammnedst* body (SHAKSPEARE Meas. for Meas.). The *wickedst* caitiff (from Anglosaxon *vicejan* = *veneficiis uti*) (IB.). Matter, the *wickedst* offspring of thy race (JOHN WILMOT † 1680). The *wretchedst* of the race of man (from the Anglosaxon *vreccan*, *persequi*) (OTWAY); and so with the people: *tireder* (HALLIWELL s. v.) &c.

Of others of the above cited **adjective terminations** may serve as Modern-English examples: The *soldest* bodies (W. IRVING), compare: The *soueraynst* things (SKELTON I. 38). — Nothing *certainer* (SHAKSPEARE Much Ado &c.); those compounded with *some* and *ful*: The *best* and *wholesomst* spirits of the night (SHAKSPEARE

Meas. for Meas.). The *handsomest* and genteelest footman (FIELDING). The *unhopefullest* husband that I know (SHAKSPEARE Much Ado &c.). The *beautifullest* race of people upon earth (SHERIDAN). I yearn'd to know which one was *faithfullest* Of all this camp includes (COLERIDGE). And be this peal its *awfullest* and last sound (L. BYRON). The cellar's a *cheerfuller* place than the cell (LONGFELLOW). In Old-English all such forms are used without hesitancy.

Others also of the twosyllabled adjectives not named above frequently form their degrees of comparison by derivational terminations; thus adjectives in *ow*, *el*, *il*, *er*, *ant*, *t* (ct), *st*, even threesyllabled ones in *er-y*: In a *narrower* sphere (L. BYRON). And *hollower* grew The deep-worn path (BRYANT). *Cruel'st* racks (OTWAY). The *cruellest* mortification (GOLDSMITH). Their people's *civiller* (BUTLER); especially frequent in *er*: *Bitterer* remembrances (L. BYRON). In its *tenderer* hour (ID.). The *proper'st* observations (BUTLER). The *properest* means (GOLDSMITH). The *sobberest* constitutions (FIELDING). With *bitterest* reproaches (CONGREVE). 'twixt *bitterest* foemen (L. BYRON). The *tend'rest* eloquence (ROWE). The *cleverest* man (LEWES). — A *pleasanter* tune (CAMPBELL). The *pleasant'st* angling (SHAKSPEARE Much Ado &c.). One of the *pleasantest* figures in German literature (LEWES). Silence is the *perfectest* herald of joy (SHAKSPEARE Much Ado &c.). Full of reptiles, not less loathsome, though Their sting is *honester* (L. BYRON). — To find there is a *slipperier* step or two (ID.).

The elision of the *e* in the superlative termination *est* is not rare in verse.

It will be understood with this mode of comparison that it is now here absolutely necessary, but frequently yields to the second mode (see b.).

Among the **anomalous** forms of comparison Modern-English reckons:

a) those diverging in the vowel:

old; elder, eldest (Anglosaxon eald, ald; yldra, yldesta) on account of the otherwise extinct vowel-modification. Beside these forms stand the regular older, oldest. The Old-English has eldore, eldoste; eldere, eldeste; yet even early the unmodified derivation is used: The *oldest* lady of hem alle spak (CHAUCER 914.).

With the various forms in themselves of the same meaning differences in usage are connected, which, however are not decisively fixed. Elder, eldest commonly form an opposition to younger and newer, but do not include the notion of old as of stricken in years: Nothing! thou *elder* brother even to Shade (JOHN WILMOT). I have . . . a son . . . some years *elder* than this (SHAKSPEARE). In the *elder* days of Art (LONGFELLOW). The faded fancies of an *elder* world (ID.). My *eldest* daughter (GOLDSMITH), whereas older, oldest frequently has in itself the meaning of age, of the no longer fresh, new, therefore also occasionally that of maturity: I did not know you. You look *older* (LONGFELLOW). He was the *oldest* monk of all (ID.). One of the *oldest* of Prince John's followers (W. SCOTT). With all the *oldest* and ablest critics (LONGFELLOW). The *oldest* as

well as the newest wine (ID.). But that this boundary is overstepped, is proved by such passages as: Their brother . . . proved that she was two years *older* (BURNBY). The eldest, some five years *older* (BULWER).

late, *latter*, *last*, alongside of *later*, *latest* (Anglosaxon *lāt*, *lātra*, sup. *lātemesta*; *latōst* is only an adverbial form) of which the *latter* forms may be regarded as the regular ones, whereas in the former the vowel lengthened in English appears sharpened again. Compare above the shortened Old-English forms of comparison.

Even these are distinguished by usage, although likewise not with decision; *latter*, *last*, stand analogously to the forms *former*, *first*, whereas *later*, *latest*, signify degrees in time merely, the former importing more the ordinal succession, the latter more the time opposed to the early. Both may certainly, especially in the superlative, be readily interchanged with each other: The *latter* end of his commonwealth forgets the beginning (SHAKSP. Temp.). I am the *last* that will last keep his oath (SHAKSP. Lrve's L. L.). Rienzi! *last* of Romans (L. BYRON). The first, *last*, sole reward of so much love! (ID.). The felon's *latest* breath Absolves the innocent man who bears his crime (BRYANT). As my *first* glance Of love and wonder was for thee, then take My *latest* look (L. BYRON). Then turn we to her *latest* tribune's name (ID.).

- β) Forms of comparison which agree in meaning with a positive of a different stem, while themselves having no formally corresponding positive:

good, — better, best (Anglosaxon *gōd* — *betera*, *betra*, *betesta*, *betsta*).

The comparative form existing in Old-English *bet*, *bette* (Anglosaxon *bett*, *bet*) is an adverb.

evil, *ill*, *bad*, — worse, worst, Old-English *werse*; *werste*, *werreste* (Anglosaxon *yfel*, Old-norse *illr* — *vyrsa*, *vyrsesta*, *virresta*; *bad*, which is regarded as an English positive, dialectically = sick, ill, perhaps belongs to the Anglosaxon *bidan*, *humi prosterni*, whence *bedd*, *lectus*, and *bedling*, *bāding*, *effeminatus*. Compare Dieffenbach's Wörterbuch I. p. 282.).

In Old-English *bad* also forms degrees of comparison: to the *badder* ende (CHAUCER 10538). Old-English has in a striking manner a comparative *werre*, *worre* and *war*: Of thilke *werre* In whiche none wot who hath the *werre* (GOWER in HALLIWELL s. v.). The world is much *war* than it woont (SPENSER). Even Old-Scottish and dialectical in North-England, Lancashire and Scotland is *war*. These forms correspond to that in use as a positive in Anglosaxon *veorr*, *veor*, but which, according to the Old-norse comparative *verri*, Danish *værre*, is itself originally a comparative. In the collateral form *worser* a gemination of the comparative termination is contained; compare the Old-Highdutch *wirsiro*. It is often found in Shakespeare, Dryden and in dialects, and corresponds to the superlative *vyrsesta*, Old-Highdutch *wirsist*. The grammar of the seventeenth century cites it as regular along with *worse*; at present it is noted as a barbarism.

much (*mickle*), — more, most, Old-English *mechel*, *mekil*, *michel*, *mochel*, *muchel* — more, mest, most (Anglosaxon *mi-*

cel, mycel, mucel — mǣra, mæra, mæsta; in English we also regard many, Anglosaxon maneg, multus, as a positive).

The form mickle, in use in Shakspeare as still in the North of England, Old-Scotch mekil, mikel, now muckle, mickle, has early the abbreviated moche, muche, which also corresponds to the Anglosaxon adverb micle, alongside of it. The meaning *magnus* in relation to extension in space is still proper to the Old-English: Inde the *more* (MAUNDEV. p. 50.). He is not mecheles *more* than an egle (p. 48.). But the meaning *multus* soon preponderates.

The form *mo*, *moe*, also *ma*, as well as Scottish, formerly also used adjectively along with *more*, is the Anglosaxon adverbial form *mā* alongside of *mære*. It is early found frequently in the plural or before substantives in the plural: Of him camen *mo generaciouns* than of the othere (MAUNDEV. p. 222.); as well as later: Many *mo* unto the nombre of ten thousande and *moo* (were slayne) (CAXTON). Hence the grammarian Alexander Gil at the beginning of the seventeenth century puts the forms of comparison: much, *more*, *most*; many, *mo*, *most* together, as corresponding to each other. See Mommsen's *Romeo and Juliet* p. 12. The age after Spencer and Shakspeare gradually abandons this form.

little, — less, lesser; least, Old-English *litel* — *lasse*, *las*, *lesse*; *leeste*, thereafter also *lest*, Anglosaxon *lytel*, *litel* — *lāssa*, *lāsta*.

In Old-English the positive *lite*, *lyte*, is also found, as still in Scottish and North-English, Anglosaxon *lyt* adverb and adjective; also *lile*, Danish *lille*, occurs still in Modern-English, as well as in northern dialects (HALLIWELL s. v.). The comparative lesser with a geminated comparative termination is censured by grammarians, but has become indigenous; it is chiefly limited to the meaning smaller: The more my prayer, the *lesser* is my grace (SHAKSPEARE *Mids. N. Dr.*). It is the *lesser* blot (ID. *Two G. of Ver.*). 'The *lesser* lights', as opposed to the moon (DRAYTON). Things of *lesser* dignity (L. BYRON). That less coincides with the adverbial comparative, as least with the superlative (Anglosaxon *lās*, *lāst*), is a matter of course. Lesser is striking as an adverb in Shakspeare. See adverb. The adjective occurs at present as well as formerly. Old English: Babyloyne the *lesse* (MAUNDEV. p. 42.). A *lasse* fowel (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 243.); Modern-English: How to name the bigger light and how the *less* That burn by day and night (SHAKSPEARE *Temp.*). — Dialects, besides the form lesser have an other comparative lesserer and the superlatives lessest and lesserest, for instance in Norfolk. Dialects also form regular degrees of comparison from *little*: *littler*, *littlest* (compare Dialect. of Craven. Lond. 1828. s. vv.) Shakspeare has *littlest*: Where love is great, the *littlest* doubts are fear (HAMLET 3. 2.). In Old-English the degrees of comparison are also expressed by *min* — *minnist* (Old-norse *minni* = *minri*, minor). TOWNLEY MYST.

. . *further*, *furthest* (Anglosaxon comparative *furðra*, major, along with the adverb *furðor*, ulterior), allied with the adverb *forth*, Anglosaxon *forð*, are terms to which the degrees of comparison belonging to the Anglosaxon adverb *feorr*, English *far* = *procul*, perhaps on account of the nearly allied meaning, are assimilated (Anglosaxon *fyrre*, *feorrest*), which in Old-English sound as *fer* — *ferre*, *ferrere* — *ferrest* and there cor-

respond to the *dere* (dear) — *derre*, *derrere* — *derrest*. For furthermost see further below.

Compare: Let us not leave them time for *further* council (L. BYRON). 'This the *furthest* hour of Assyria's years (ID.). Farther is erroneously deemed a collateral form of further. These occur in their nature also as adverbs, but are likewise adjectives: From the *farthest* steep of India (SHAKESPEARE MIDS. N. DR.).

- γ) Here belongs also the positive arising from a **comparative form**, with the degrees of comparison developed out of it.

near, — nearer, nearest, beside which next still stands as a superlative, Old-English — *nere*, *narre*; *narrest*, beside which the adverb mostly sounds *ner*, *nar*; whereas the other forms also stand adverbially (DIALECT OF CRAVEN II. 3.); Anglosaxon *adject. comp. neara*, *nýra*, *superl. nýhsta*, *néxta*.

These forms belong to the Anglosaxon *neáh* — *neár*, *nyr*, *nér* — *neáhst*, next, whence the originally adverbial *nigh* comes, to which a comparative *nighor* (SMART Dict. s. v.) and a superlative *nighest* is given (compare *nighest-about* = nearest way in northern dialects). The Old-English *nigh* — *nerre*, *nere* — next corresponds in form to the Old-English *high*, *hie*, *hoy* — *herre* — *hexte*, Anglosaxon *heáh* — *heähra*, *heárra* — *héhsta*, as *nigh* — *nigher* — *nighest* to the Modern-English *high* — *higher* — *highest*, for which Old-English presents also *heire* — *heiste*.

- δ) Finally the **superlatives** in *most*, Old-English *m-est*, *m-yest*, are to be reckoned here, which originally correspond to the Anglosaxon ones in (e)m-est, which point to a positive (e)ma, which itself had a superlative character. In this superlative even in Anglosaxon the termination *mást*, *môst* is certainly found along with *mest*. Anglosaxon *mëdema*, *mëdemra*, *mëdemôst*, *mëdëmast* = *mediocris*; Gothic *innuma* — Anglosaxon *innemest*; Anglosaxon *forma* — *formest*, *formest*, *fyrmost*; Anglosaxon *hinduma*, *hindema* — Gothic *hindumists*; Gothic *aftuma* — Anglosaxon *äftemest*, *äftemôst*.

The termination *mest* has been in English gradually confounded with the adverb *most*, Anglosaxon *mæst*. It was appended to comparative adjective forms, often of the same sound as adverbs and prepositions, and containing a determination of space (compare *innermost*), and therefore to the corresponding **adverbs positives** were further annexed (compare *highmost*), and by reckon of Anglosaxon forms, like *sûðmest* (southmost), which points to a positive *sûðema*, also put to nouns (compare *topmost*). In that was seen the particle, otherwise prefixed to the positive, as the periphrasis of the superlative, and the corresponding comparative in *more* was even formed (compare the English adverb *furthermore*, Old-English *forthermore*). Here belong the following, which occasionally offer double forms for the same meaning.

foremost, the comparative to which *former* is still in use, Old-English also the positive: *forme* — *former* (compare *formerwarde* = *vanguard*. WEBER) — *formest*, *foremost*;

Anglosaxon *forma* — comparative is wanting — *formesta*, *fyr-mesta*, *primus*.

Old-English: Adam oure *forme* father (CHAUCER Tale of Melib.); still in Skelton: his *forme* foote (forefoot) (l. 385.). Adam oure *forenest* fader (MAUNDEV. p. 303.); and still in Skelton: That wonte was to be *formyst* (l. 230.). The allied in sense *first*, *primus*, belongs to the Anglosaxon *fyrre* — *fyrrest*, *fyrst*, Old-norse *fyrri* — *fyrstr*, prior, *primus*, which corresponds in sound with the Anglosaxon *fyrre* — *feorrest*, *fyrrest*, from *feor*, English *far*, yet related to the Anglosaxon *forma*, belongs to *for*, Old-norse *fyrri*. — *First* and *formest* are often put together even in Old-English (PIERS PLOUGH. p. 403.).

hindmost and *hindermost* (Anglosaxon *hindema*, *hinduma*, *ultimus*; compare *hind-veard*, *posterus*; Gothic *hindumists*; *hinder* is in the Anglosaxon an adverb and preposition, in English an adjective).

Old-English also formed the superlative *hinderest*, like *innerest*, *overest*, *upperest*, *utterest*.

inmost and *innermost* (Gothic *innuma* — Anglosaxon *inne-mesta*; with it is found the Anglosaxon comparative *innera* and superlative *innôsta*). In English *inner* is in use as an adjective.

outmost and *outermost* (Anglosaxon *ûtmost*, to which the adjective comparative *ûtera*, *ûltra* belongs in meaning. The adverb *ût* forms *utôr* — *ûtemôst*, *ûtemest*). The adjective *outer* still belongs to the English.

utmost and *uttermost* (Anglosaxon *ÿtemesta*, with which the positive *ÿte* and the comparative *ÿtra* agree); the adjective *utter* continues.

utmost is distinguished in usage from *outmost* in part by the former's being more appropriated to the determination of degree, the latter to the determination of space as such.

upmost, *uppermost* and *overmost* (Anglosaxon *is up*, *uppe* only an adverb, *sursum*; it borrowed its forms of comparison from *ufa*, *supra*; *ufôr*, *yfemest*. As an adjective the superlative *ufemesta*, *yfemesta* along with the comparative *ufora*, *ufera* was usual). In English the comparative *upper* is in use as an adjective, over essentially as an adverb and preposition; compare the Old-English *overest* alongside of *upperest*, see above. *Upmost* is rare.

endmost (Anglosaxon *is endemest* [endemes?], to which *endemestness* = *extremitas* as a substantive belongs, an adverb; it is hardly a compound from *ende-mæst*).

In Old-English a comparative form *ender*, *endir*, is found: this *ender dai* = *lately*. See Halliwell s. v, to which *endermost*, dialectically = *undermost*, is still in use.

midmost and *middlemost*, Anglosaxon *mëdemôsta*, see above, lies at the root of the former form; compare also the adjective *mid*, *mëd*; the second leans upon the adjective *middel* — *midlesta*.

aftermost (Anglosaxon *ātemesta*, *ātemōsta*, to which *ātera* as a positive, *āterra* as a comparative occur).

undermost (Anglosaxon *under* is a preposition; in English *under* preserves essentially the nature of a preposition and an adverb).

nethermost, in Scottish dialects *nethmist*, *nedmist* (Anglosaxon *niðemesta*, along with the comparative *niðera*, *neofera*, whence the English adjective *nether*).

lowermost, as the superlative of *low* — *lower* along with *lowest*, without any Anglosaxon precedent, from the Old-norse *låg*, *locus depressus*, compare *lāgreistr*, *humilis*, English dialectical *loff*, *loffer*.

hithermost (Anglosaxon *hider*, *huc*, adverb; a comparative *hiderer* is cited). In English *hither* is also employed adjectively. A form *thithermost* over against it (Anglosaxon *pider*, *illuc*) seems not to have been formed by the older language.

furthermost, is a collateral form of *furthest* (see above) beside which the adverb *furthermore* still stands as a comparative.

The adverbial comparative, resting upon a misunderstanding of *most*, is already old: *Yit i-peynted was a litel furthermore*, *How Atbalaunce huntid the wilde bore* (CHAUCE 2071.). Chaucer has *Backimore*: *Belle Dame sans Mercy* 85. Dialectically we have *bettermer*, *bettermost*, *uppermer*, *nighmer*, *lowermer*, *innermer* and many more.

highmost, Shakspeare has from *high* instead of *highest*; dialectic in Yorkshire.

southmost (Anglosaxon *sūðmest*, like *vestmest*); *westmost* is also found in Rob. of Gloucester l. 220. On the other hand in English *westernmost*, *northernmost*, also *southernmost* are formed out of the corresponding adjectives (Anglosaxon adj. *western*, *norðern*, *sūthern*).

topmost (Anglosaxon *top*); *weathermost* = *furthest* to windward; *sternmost* = *farthest* *astern*, and more dialectically, are formed out of substantives.

- b) The periphrastic formation of the degrees of comparison is that in which *more* and *most* with the positive serve to represent the comparative and the superlative: *frugal*, *more frugal*, *most frugal*. A sharp boundary is not to be drawn between the use of derivative forms and the periphrastic formation, although monosyllabic adjectives commonly prefer derivative terminations. Even with monosyllabic adjectives however the periphrastic comparison is frequent: *Ingratitude*, *more strong* than *traitors arms* (SHAKSPEARE *Jul. C.*). *The silver swans her hapless fate bemoan In notes more sad than when they sing their own* (POPE). *There shall he welcome thee . . . With smiles more sweet Than when at first he took thee by the hand* (BRYANT). *By accident most strange* (SHAKSPEARE *Temp.*). *Most poor matters* (IB.). *O, most dear mistress!* (IB.). *To their most great and growing region* (L. BYRON). *'Tis but to feel that one most dear Grows needful*

to the heart (TOWNSEND). The Majesty of the *Most High* Shall overshadow thee (LONGFELLOW). With participles the periphrasis is naturally preferred: His heart . . *more bent* to raise the wretched than to rise (GOLDSMITH). *Most damned* Angelo! (SHAKESPEARE Meas. for Meas.).

If one object is not compared with the other with regard to equality, but rather one quality with the other, more in general appears: Our authors make a doubt Whether he were *more wise* or *stout* (BUTLER); yet even here the other mode of comparison, especially before than, takes place: Your company is *fairer* than honest (SHAKESPEARE Meas. for Meas.).

The periphrastic comparison is very old in English and runs parallel with the other without visible distinction: Of *sayroost* fourme & maners, & *mest gentyl & fre* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 420.). Man is hym *moost lik* and: And made man *likkest* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 161.). O Griffoun hathe the body *more gret* and is *more strong* thanne 8 lyouns . . ; and *more gret* and *strongere*, than an 100 egles (MAUNDEV. p. 269.). Compare also: Upon a lowly asse *more white* then snow; Yet she much *whiter* (SPENSER p. 10. l.).

As with forms of comparison by derivative terminations a double comparison occurs, a reduplication of the comparison by the combination of more and most with a derived comparative and superlative form takes place. Modern grammarians reject it. It is very old and is frequently inoffensive in the written language down to the seventeenth century: That lond is meche *more hottere* than it is here (MAUNDEV. p. 29.). Another sege *more lowere* p. 217.). The *most faires* damyselles (p. 280.). *Moost clenest* flessch of briddes (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 276.). I was *more wrother* (SKELTON I. 146.). The yonge man is *more folyssher* (p. 200.). He is *more vahappyer* (p. 20.); very common in Shakspeare: To some *more fitter* place (Meas. for Meas.). Instruments of some *more mightier* member (IB.). I am *more better* than Prospero (Temp.). His *more braver* daughter (IB.). *More fairer* than fair (Love's L. L.). The *most unkindest* cut of all (Jul. C.). The calmest and *most stillest* night (Henr. iv.). The longest night . . and the *most heaviest* (Two Gentl. of Ver.) &c. The *most straightest* sect of our religion (ACTS of the Ap. 26, 5.). The aim of the reduplication was, as ever, strengthening. Ben Jonson deemed such geminations to be English Atticisms. The warning of Modern-English grammarians against expressions of this sort proves that they are still frequently in use in writing, although not in literature, as they still abound in dialects.

To the comparison effected by more, most we may oppose the reduction to a lower and lowest degree by *less*, *least*: Of feelings fierier far but *less severe* (L. BYRON). Some *less majestic*, *less beloved* head (IB.). The tree of deepest root is found *Least willing* still to quit the ground (MRS. THRALE). On loftiest and *least shelter'd* rocks (L. BYRON).

A strengthening of the comparative is brought about by adverbs and adverbial determinations, as much, greatly, incomparably,

yet, still, far, by far, a great deal &c.: Your hair has grown *much grayer* (LONGFELLOW). England is *greatly larger* than Scotland (W. SCOTT). A living death And buried; but O, *yet more miserable* (MILTON). With arm *still lustier* (L. BYRON). Of feelings *fierier far* (ID.). There are maidens in Scotland *more lovely by far* (W. SCOTT) &c. Even the **superlative** is strengthened adverbially: A self-mastery of *the very highest kind* (LEWES). Epaminondas was *by far the most accomplished* of the Thebans (MURRAY) &c.

The formerly widely diffused strengthening of the **superlative** by composition with *alder, aller*, which is still met with in Shakespeare in *alderlicfest* (see above p. 176), has been abandoned. The same sense is effected, by annexing the positive with a plural substantive, or even used as a substantive with *of*, to the superlative, whereby, as by *alder*, the whole sphere of homogeneous objects is denoted. In poets this is not rare: *Love-liest of lovely things* are they, On earth, that soonest pass away (BRYANT). The *bravest of the brave* (L. BYRON). Well doth the Spanish hind the difference know 'Twixt him and Lusian slave *the lowest of the low* (ID.). Old-English: *Fairest of faire*, o lady myn Venus (CHAUCER 2223.). An other strengthening is the combination of the superlative with the positive: *My dearest-dear* Victorian (LONGFELLOW).

Many adjectives are, from their meaning, **incapable of degrees of comparison**. Here belong all those, whose intensity is not capable of a more or a less, especially those expressing definite relations of **time, space and number**, as *yearly, square, second*, or referring to **material, possession or descent** as *wooden, paternal, French*, as well as those, which by themselves express the **highest measure** of the notion or **negative determinations**, as *infinite, eternal, immense, consummate, omnipotent, boundless* &c. Yet here an abstract rule does not suffice. The **superlative**, especially, of many words of this sort, in spite of the censure of grammarians, is used to strengthen the meaning conveyed by the positive, and even **comparatives** are not wanting which seem to mock the literal conception. Compare: A *purpler* beverage (L. BYRON). Once *bloody* mortals — and now *bloodier* idols (ID.). . . Lest the dead under the sod, In the land of strangers, should be lonely! Ah me! I think I am *lonelier* here! (LONGFELLOW). — My *chiefest* entertainment (SHERIDAN). The grave shall bear the *chiefest* prize away (L. BYRON). The *perfectest* herald of joy (SHAKESPEARE *Much Ado* &c.). Hail! *divinest* Melancholy! (MILTON). You *divinest* powers (OTWAY). I am the falsest, *veriest* slave (ID.). I'm the *veriest* fool (LONGFELLOW). When deeds are wrought Which well might shame *extremest* hell (WHITTIER). — I live and die unheard with a *most voiceless* thought (L. BYRON). No discord in the three But the *most perfect* harmony (LONGFELLOW); and in a descending scale of comparison: The Roman friend of Rome's *least mortal* mind (ID.). Nothing is more frequent than the employment of *chiefest, extremest*, which the narrowmindedness of grammarians rejects,

who rather have to comprehend the mode of viewing things, represented by the living language, than to fix limits to it.

The Modern-English adjective cheap, at the comparison of which no one is now offended, is properly a substantive (Anglosaxon *ceap*, pecus, pretium, negotium) and was originally compounded with great, good, like *bon marché*; wherefore no comparison appeared in the preceding adjective. Old-English: *Thai ben there grettere cheep* (MAUNDEV. p. 49.). *Clothes . . ben gretter chep there* (p. 233.). *He made of hem better cheep* (p. 83.). Compare also good-cheap in Halliwell s. v. Chief is indeed originally a substantive too, standing, however, in a direct relation with another substantive.

3) The Numeral.

Next in order to the adjective comes the numeral, so far as it gains, as a determination of magnitude, characterizing objects under the point of view of their unity or multiplicity, the nature of a qualifying word, and stands like the latter in formal relation to the substantive.

English has adjective cardinal numerals, ordinal numerals and numerals of multiplication. They are, almost without exception, of Anglosaxon origin.

a) The cardinal number serves to express Unity and the number of units. In their order of succession they present themselves in the following manner:

1. *one*, Anglosaxon *ân*, Old-English *one*, *oone*, *on*, *o*, *ane*, &c. 2. *two*, Anglosaxon *tvêgen*, *tvâ*, Old-English *twey*, *tway*, *tweie*, *twêne*, *two*. 3. *three*, Anglosaxon *prî*, *prêo*, Old-English *pre*. 4. *four*, Anglosaxon *feôver*, Old-English *four*e. 5. *five*, Anglosaxon *fif*, Old-English *five*. 6. *six*, Anglosaxon *six*, Old-English *sixe*, *syxe*. 7. *seven*, Anglosaxon *seofon*, Old-English *seven*. 8. *eight*, Anglosaxon *eahta*, Old-English *eizte*, *agt*, *aughte*. 9. *nine*, Anglosaxon *nigon*, Old-English *nyne*, *nine*. 10. *ten*, Anglosaxon *tên*, *tîn*, *tyn* = *t̃hon*, Old-English *tene*. 11. *eleve*, Anglosaxon *endlif*, dative *endlifum*, *endleofon*, *endlefen*, Old-English *endleue*, *elene*, *endleuene*. 12. *twelve*, Anglosaxon *twelf*, Old-English *tuelue*, *twolf*, *twelf*. 13. *thirteen*, Anglosaxon *preôtýne*, Old-English *protene*, *thretene*. 14. *fourteen*, Anglosaxon *feóvertýne*, Old-English *fowrtene*, also *fourte* (WEBER). 15. *fifteen*, Anglosaxon *fiftýne*, Old-English *fiftene*. 16. *sixteen*, Anglosaxon *sixtýne*, Old-English *sixtene*. 17. *seventeen*, Anglosaxon *seofontýne*, Old-English *seventene*. 18. *eighteen*, Anglosaxon *eahtatýne*, Old-English *eiztetene*, *ayttene*. 19. *nineteen*, Anglosaxon *nigontýne*, Old-English *nyentene*. 20. *twenty*, Anglosaxon *tvêntig*, Old-English *twenty*, *tuenti*. 21. &c. *twenty-one*, *-two*, *-three* &c. 30. *thirty*, Anglosaxon *prîtig*, *prittig*, Old-English *pritty*. 40. *forty*, Anglosaxon *feóvertig*, Old-English *fowrtie*, *fourty*. 50. *fifty*, Anglosaxon *fiftig*, Old-English *fifty*. 60. *sixty*, Anglosaxon *sixtig*, Old-English *sixty*. 70. *seventy*, Anglosaxon *seofontig*, Old-English *seventy*. 80. *eighty*, Anglosaxon *eahtatig*, Old-English *eiztety*. 90. *ninety*, Anglosaxon *nigontig*, Old-English *ninty*. 100. (a, one) *hundred*, Anglosaxon *hundred*,

hundrid = centuria, is a substantive. The cardinal number was teóntig and hund, Old-English hondred, hondrith. 1000. (a, one) *thousand*, Anglosaxon þúsend, Old-Engl. þousand, þousant, thousand.

The higher numbers *million*, Old-English the same, *billion*, *trillion* &c. are borrowed from the French.

Compound numbers stand either in the additive relation, as twenty-two, or in the multiplicative relation, as ten thousand.

In the additive relation the smaller number commonly stands after the greater, whereas in the multiplicative the multiplier stands before the multiplicand: twelve thousand and twelve hundred and twelve. The tens standing after thousands or hundreds with their units or even units alone are connected by and: three hundred *and* sixty-five; eight thousand *and* fourty &c. The tens with the following units are commonly connected by a hyphen: sixty-five, yet this is also omitted.

In the additive relation the units may also come before the tens, in which case and is put betwixt both; here too hyphens either stand or are absent: They have each of them received *one-and-twenty* shillings (G. FARQUHAR). But *six-and-fifty* pounds (J. VANBRUGH) *Four and forty* men of war . . . were assembled in the harbour (MACAULAY). If a greater number precedes the then, this is not permitted. That manner is also commonly limited to the numbers up to fifty inclusive. In Anglosaxon it was usual with all tens, also after a preceding greater number: tvâ and hundseofontig (= 72) (Llſc. 10, 1. 17.); nigon and hundnigontig (= 99). Ceorles vergild is cc and vi and lx þrymsa (= 266 Threepennypiece).

The Anglosaxon numbers teónting, ênufontig, twelftig are like hund (centum), which was also superfluously united with the numbers from seofontig — twelftig, have been abandoned; yet the hundreds have not merely been numbered up to 900: twelve thousand *twelve hundred* and twelve, especially in the numbers of years. In Old-English even twenty hundred, and the like are found. Compare: Of *fifteen hondrith* . . . Went away but fifti and thre; Of *twenty hondrith* . . . But even five and fifti (PERCY Rel. p. 4. I.).

In the calculation of percentage cent stands for 100: five per cent = five in the hundred.

0 is expressed by cipher, cypher, zero, also by nought.

The numeration by *scores* (score, Anglosaxon scor, incisura, numerus vicenarius), which was familiar to the Celts, and is still in use in a limited measure in French (compare quatre-vingts, six-vingts &c.), as well as in Danish (compare tresindstyve abbreviated from tres = 3 × 20 &c.) is still in usual, has established itself since early times alongside of the common method of numeration, although now in narrower bounds. Old-English: Four hundred &c. *four score* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 139.). *Syre score* paces (PERCY Rel. p. 46.). *Twenty score* paces (ib.). The sheriffe with *seven score* men Fast after him is gone (p. 22). The zere of oure lord a thousand thre hundred *four score* and five (TREVISA). Modern-English: They reign'd the monarchs of a *score* of

miles (H. WALPOLE). *Ninescore* and seventeen pounds (SHAKSPEARE Meas. for M.). Sixty of my *fourscore* years (L. BYRON). An old man of *threescore* (LONGFELLOW). Score was to the old archers the expression for twenty yards; it now signifies in western dialects twenty pounds else, generally the stairs. In Old-English we even find twenty multiplied: In the date of oure Drighte . . . A thousand and thre hundred *Twies twenty* and ten (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 262.).

Two definite or already known objects are comprehended by both; Anglosaxon m. *begen*, f. and n. *bâ* (*bû* in compounds), Old-norse m. *baðir*, f. *bádar*, n. *bædi*, compare Gothic *bajōps*; Old-English *bey*, *beye* along with *bothe* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), also *boo*, *bo*; compare, from section the 15th: Into the dyche they falleth *bo*, in two Mss. in Halliwell p. XXVI.; also *beie* and *be-then* (IB. s. vv.): Old-English still used the genitive (Anglosaxon *bega*, *begæ*, *begra*): *poru her beyre red* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 262.); which there after adopted the form *botheres*: *Hir botheres myghte* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 340.). *Hir botheres right* (p. 371.), along with *bother* (HALLIWELL s. v.). The Anglosaxon compound *bûtvû*, *bûtû* = both two, often appears in Old-English as *bothe* two: We han the deth deserved *bothe tuo* (CHAUCER 1718). Sche saugh hem *bothe tuo* (4298.). With *bothe* myn yen *tuo* (10259). So too in Shakspeare: Neither of either; I remit *both twain* (LOVE'S L. L. 5, 2.).

In Anglosaxon the numbers 1 — 4, 10 — 12, as well as the round tens *tvêntig* &c. in part, and the substantives *hundrid*, *pûsend* were capable of inflection.

In English *one* as an indefinite pronoun is capable of the genitive inflection *one's* and of the plural formation *ones*. (See the Pronoun).

Alongside of *two* we still find of old forms *twain* (Anglosaxon *tvegen* nom. and acc.): We *tweyne* (SKELTON l. 42.). Did he not send you *twain* (SHAKSPEARE LOVE'S L. L. 5, 2.). You seek it of the *twain* of least respect and interest in Venice (L. BYRON). Let there be No farther strife nor enmity Between us *twain* (LONGFELLOW); and so often in *twain* alongside of in *two*, Old-English a *two* = *entzwei*: What hinders me from cleaving you *in twain*? (L. BYRON). It is king Herod's only son That ye have cleft *in twain* (LONGF.); on the other hand: Bruce cleft his head *in two* with his sword (W. SCOTT). He may not hew his love *a two* (CHAUCER Rom. of the R. p. 251.). Thus too Old-English used a *tre*, a *seuene* &c. with divisions (into *two* &c. parts). Compare Rob. of Gloucester l. 23. 213.

The remaining numerals, considered as proper adjectives, are capable of inflection only when used as substantives. This may happen if they are considered as names of figures, or abstractedly as the expression of quantities. Of figures are used: the two, the six, a two, three eights &c. As terms for definite quantities in an abstract manner, as, unit, five, ten &c., when the image of the figure may sometimes lie at the root, compare: I always took three *threes* for nine SHAKSPEARE LOVE'S L. L. 5, 2.).

The first place is for the units, the second for the *tens*, the third for hundreds (CROSSLEY). The number, used substantively, may also be referred to objects or persons, as in to go on all *fours*; *fives*: a play with a ball, in which *three fives*, or fifteen, are counted to a game (WEBSTER). A thirty dozen moons with borrowed sheen About the world have times twelve *thirties* been (SHAKSPEARE Hamlet); also distributively: The ascent had been long and toilsome; for even the foot had to climb by *twos* and *threes* (MACAULAY).

The numerals used as substantive hundred, thousand, million, billion &c. have in the singular one or the a (= one) weakened down to an article, before them; the former, if the singular is to be made prominent and emphatic, perhaps also in an implied or express antithesis, which moreover happens in the numbers of years at present, even without this reason (not so in Old-English, see above p. 276); the latter, if this is not the case. Millions &c. however, seldom come under the former case. Compare: The statutes continued to be published in the same language, for above *one hundred* and twenty years (TYRWHIT ed. Chaucer p. XXII.). The number was not less than *one hundred* thousand men (W. SCOTT). They sent, therefore, *one thousand* men-at-arms (ID.); on the other hand: About a *hundred* years after (MACAULAY). I have a *thousand* things to do (TH. HOLCROFT). At about a *hundred* and sixty yards distance (FIELDING). The singulars: hundred, thousand &c., stand without a preceding determination of this sort, if the definite article or possessive and demonstrative pronouns precede: Where is the *thousand* marks, I gave thee, villain? (SHAKSPEARE Com. of Err.). You saw me . . . Apparent sovereign of *our hundred* islands (L. BYRON). Only one of all *his hundred* descendants (LONGFELLOW). *These hundred* years (GOLDSMITH). Yet the article is also sometimes wanting: When *thousand* worlds are round (POPE).

If more than a hundred or a thousand is involved, hundred and thousand do not assume the plural termination, but have from the oldest times passed as indeclinable, where standing *adjectively*, with or without a succeeding number in a direct relation to determinate objects, which is the case wherever the cardinal stands in the place of the ordinal number, as in the numbers of years: *Three hundred* years. An extent of *three thousand* miles. An army of *sixty thousand* men (MACAULAY). By *many thousand* men (W. SCOTT). Yet in this life Lie hid *more thousand* deaths (SHAKSP. Meas. for Meas.). So even in Old-English: *pre hondred* men (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 476.). With *fifteen hondrith* archares bold (PERCY Rel. p. 2. I.). In *eigte thousand* 3er (WRIGHT Popul. Treat. p. 134). *Ten hundrid thousand* stories tellen I can (CHAUCER 10114.). They may, however, when used substantively, assume the *s* of the plural, in which case they are either followed by no substantive, or by one standing to it in the relation of the periphratic genitive with of: What is the amount of a *thousand thousands*? = Tausender (CROSSLEY). These poor ignorant wretches, some *hundreds* in number (MACAULAY). The poor, blind slave . .

Expired and *thousands* perished in the fall (LONGFELLOW). The hall not far from hence, which bears on high *Hundreds* of *doges* (L. BYRON). All the offenders, *hundreds of thousands* in number (MACAULAY). He had then deceived himself . . . into the belief that the English . . . were eager to rise in arms by *tens of thousands* to welcome him (ID.). Thus even in Old-English *Hundreth*z fulle many (MORTE ARTHURE in HALLIWELL s. v. herbergage). Gret multitude of peple, well ordeyned . . . be *thousandes*, be *hundredes* and be *tenthes* (MAUNDEV. p. 232.). — Million, billion &c. are always substantives, which therefore had always to be followed by another substantive in the genitive relation, as in: Millions of *spiritual creatures* (MILTON). If, however, the millions &c. are followed by still smaller numbers, the former never operate upon a following substantive. Compare: Europe contains 2,793,000 *square miles*, and 227,000,000 of *inhabitants* (CROSSLEY). If the million &c. is followed by a fraction of it, it again comes in of: A million and a half of *bricks* (ID.).

In the discussion of the substantive, we made mention of compound substantives, which, like *twelvemonth*, *twelvepence*, as terms for a multitude, have a plural character. This substantive formation stands in close connection with another phenomenon, which is now to be discussed. The apprehension of any arbitrary number of objects as a totality and unity is very familiar to Old-English, with which especially *an*, a precedes, as the expression of the unity: A 2 *myle* from Bethleem (MAUNDEV. p. 74.). A *fyve dayes* or *sixe* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 314.). The desertes duren wel a 13 *journeyes* (MAUNDEV. p. 63.). A *twenty* bokes, clothed in black or red (CHAUCER 296., rightly, according to Tyrwhitt, without *A* according to Wright). A *sixty* fedme (MAUNDEV. p. 71.). Sum tyme *an* 200, and sum tyme *mo* (p. 191.). So *pat* *per* com out of an wode — An *six* *pousend* of Brutons (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 211.). This form of expression, upon which also a few alongside of *few* rests (see the pronoun) has been partly preserved in Modern-English: A tedious *twelve years* FLETCHER'S Poems p. 140.). *This three months* (DAVENPORT in Dodsley O. P. XI. 299.). *Thay ware not so hack this seven yeere* (Mariage of Wit and Wisdome 1579.). *A' has been a vile thief this seven year* SHAKESPEARE *Much Ado* &c.) where *me* may take year to be the old plural. We have . . . most biting laws . . . Which for *this fourteen years* we have let sleep (Meas. for Meas.). Here also belong: Go with me To bless *this twain*, that they may prosperous be (Temp. 4, 1.). Though my letter may lie upon my hands *this two months* (LADY MONTAGUE). In these cases we must not think of the old plural form this instead of these (see below). Thus Byron uses the plural all as singular: *All are gone* forth, and of *that all* how few perhaps return.

Fractions are ordinarily expressed by a cardinal number as numerator and an ordinal number as denominator; and if the numerator is more than one, the denominator adopts the termination of the plural, $\frac{1}{2}$ receives half as its denominator. We frequently find numerator and denominator united by a hyphen:

What is *one half* of 30? What is *one sixth* of 30? If 24 be *four fifths*, what is *one fifth*? $\frac{1}{5}$ or *four hundred and twenty-five thousandths* (CROSLLEY). When we speak of one fraction without an antithesis, there stands instead of *one* also the unaccented *a* or the article *the*: What is *a fifth* of the *sixth* of 30? What is *the half* of a *fifteenth* of 30? (ID.). Half also stands without an article: Multiply a half-penny by a half-penny, that is *half* by *half* (ID.). Thus in common life we say half past six in counting the hours. For $\frac{1}{4}$ a quarter also comes in, especially with the determination of time and space: a quarter of a hundred, of an hour, of a year, of a mile, of a pound. The denominator expressed by the ordinal number is, properly, always an adjective used as a substantive: the *fifth* = the fifth part. Half also appears as a genuine adjective (Anglosaxon *healf*, half *s.* and *adj.*): half a dozen &c. The Anglosaxon forms *oðer*, *healf*, *priddehealf*, *sixthealf* &c., in which the adjective halves the highest figure of the total number, as in *anderthalb* &c., are usual in Old-English: Thritty winter and *thriddehalf* yer (HARROWING OF HELL p. 15). Yet a half was even then added to the total number: A fote *and a half* long (MAUNDEV. p. 10.), as now: A brick *and a half*; one *and a half*.

- b) The ordinal numeral expresses adjectively the order or succession of the objects in space, in time, or, metaphorically, in an ethical sphere, as determined by number.

With the exception of the first two numbers, Anglosaxon formed the ordinal numbers from the cardinal numbers by annexing the terminations *da*, *ta*, but mostly *oða*, whereby a syncope of the final *n* took place. Old-English still has in part the syncopized forms, and also sometimes preserves *t* alongside of *th*; Modern-English equally suffixes *th* to the cardinal numbers, with the exception of the three first. In the compound ordinal numbers *th* is only added to the last constituent, whereas the preceding cardinal numbers remain unchanged.

1. *first*, *primus*, Anglosaxon *fyrsta*, also *æresta*, beside these *forma* and *formesta*, *fyrresta*, see above p. 270, Old-English *firste*, *furste*. 2. *second*, *secundus*, Anglosaxon *oðer* = *other*, Old-French *secont* (*d*, *s*, *z*), Old-English *oper* and *secunde*. 3. *third*, *tertius*, Anglosaxon *pridda*, Old-English *pridde*, *thrydde*. 4. *fourth*, *quartus*, Anglosaxon *feórda*, Old-English *ferpe*, *verthe*, *fowrthe*. 5. *fifth*, Anglosaxon *fifta*, Old-English *vifte*, *fyspe*. 6. *sixth*, *sextus*, Anglosaxon *sixta*, Old-English *sixte*, *sixpe*, *sexe*. 7. *seventh*, *septimus*, Anglosaxon *seofða*, Old-English *seuethe* and even *sene* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 9.), yet also *seventhe*. 8. *eighth*, *octavus*, Anglosaxon *eahtða*, Old-English *eigtethe*, *eghte*, also *aughtene*, *aughtende*, *eightetene* (CHAUCER 4425. Wright). 9. *ninth*, *nonus*, Anglosaxon *nigða*, Old-English *nithe*, *nynthe*. 10. *tenth*, *decimus*, Anglosaxon *teoða*, *têða*, Old-English *tethe*, *tenthe*. *Tithe* still occurs as tenth part. 11. *eleventh*, *undecimus*, Anglosaxon *endlyfta*, Old-English *endlefte*, *endlefpe*, *eleventhe*. 12. *twelfth*, *duodecimus*, Anglosaxon *twelfta*, Old-English *twelfthe*. 13. *thirteenth*, *decimus*

tertius, Anglosaxon preótteóða, Old-English thretethe, thretenethe. 14. *fourteenth*, decimus quartus, Anglosaxon feóverteóða, Old-English fowrtethe. 15. *fifteenth*, decimus quintus, Anglosaxon fífteóða, Old-English fyftethe. 16. *sixteenth*, decimus sextus, Anglosaxon sixteóða (Old-English sixtethe). 17. *seventeenth*, decimus septimus, Anglosaxon seofonteóða (Old-English seventethe). 18. *eighteenth*, decimus octavus, Anglosaxon eahtateóða (Old-English eigh-tetethe). 19. *nineteenth*, decimus nonus, Anglosaxon nigonteóða (Old-English nintethe). 20. *twentieth*, vigesimus, Anglosaxon tvêntugóða, Old-English twentepe. 21. 22 sq. twenty-first, twenty-second, twenty-third &c.

The tens from 30—90: thirtieth, fortieth, fiftieth, sixtieth, seventieth, eightieth, ninetieth, Anglosaxon prittigóða (prítigóða), feóvertigóða &c., Old-English prittipe, fourtieth &c. need no more particular discussion; but the hund prefixed to the ordinal numbers from 70 upwards in Anglosaxon, has never, it seems, been usual in English*).

Anglosaxon for 100 the ordinal number teóntigóða, *tantieth*, hund, hundred, pûsend offer no numeral forms of this sort.

English offers for 100. hundredth, 1000. thousandth, 1,000,000. millionth &c.; hence 300. three hundredth, but with another number after it, 120. hundred and twentieth, 20,010. twenty thousand and tenth.

In ordinal numbers, as well as in cardinal numbers, the unit sometimes comes before the ten: We came the *five-and-twentieth* to Mohatch (LADY MONTAGUE). Mr. Joseph Andrews was now in the *one-and-twentieth* year of his age (FIELDING). Were I still in my *five-and-twentieth* spring (L. BYRON). Old-English: In þo *four & twente* 3er (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 23.) and so too in Anglosaxon. In the reverse position, however, the ten and the unit were inflected. See Rask Gramm. ed. Thorpe p. 65. That way seems to be limited to the scores.

The transfer of the termination *th* to the scores, as in that cited by lexicographers *fourscoreth*, *octogesimus*.

The ordinal number may, in the appositive relation, assume the *s* of the genitive: Henry the second's progress (GOLDSMITH). Alongside of the Romance *second*, which took the place of *other*, which continues to exist as *alter*, *alius*, *prime* is also in use, mosly only in an ethical sense: My *prime* request, which I do last pronounce (SHAKESPEARE Temp.).

Instead of the ordinal numbers we find in Modern- as well as in Old-English, the cardinal numbers as numbers of years: In the year one thousand and sixty-six (W. SCOTT). In Old-English we also find the formes confounded: the threttene artycul, the fowrtene artycul, the fyftene articul — articulus XIII^{us} XIII^{us} articulus quindecimus (HALLIWELL Early Hist. of Freemas. p. 21.). In Chaucer 4424. one manuscript has: It was the eighte and *twenty* day Of April. — The *ten* parte = tenth (TOWNELEY MYST. p. 7.).

*) I have not found the numerals in parentheses, but formed them by analogy.

- c) The **multiplicative numeral**, called in another respect the **numeral of relation**, which states how many whole parts an object contains and how often the same magnitude is repeated in a whole (see Mätzner's French Grammar. p. 162.), are formed in English by annexing the syllable *fold*, as in Anglosaxon by *-feald*, *-plex*, Highdutch *falt*, *faltig* (belonging to the Anglosaxon *fealdan*, *plicare*) to the cardinal number: twofold, threefold, tenfold, a hundredfold, a thousandfold &c., Anglosaxon *tvifeald*, *prifeald*, *týnfeald*, with which manifold, Anglosaxon *manegfeald*, multiplex is associated. The Anglosaxon *ánfeald* (onefold) simple, has been abandoned, as well as *fēlfeald*, multiplex (compare the Old-English: by *felefold* fatter. (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 243.). Instead of the former single and simple come in, Lat. *singulus* and *simplex*, *simplus*, blended in the French *simple*. Other Romance forms are in use in a small number alongside of the Germanic ones, as double, triple and treble (Modern-French triple, Old-French treble), quadruple, quintuple, sextuple, septuple, octuple, decuple, centuple. Those going beyond sextuple are very rarely employed.

Numerals of division (*distributiva*) were not possessed by the Anglosaxon; Old-French employed the Latin *singuli*, *bini*, *terni* &c. in another sense, and made up for them in meaning by juxtapositions, as *doi et doi*, similarly to the Anglosaxon: *fif* and *fif*. Old-English: *Thei gon 2 and 2 togodre* (MAUNDEV, p. 234.). A *compagnie* of ladies *twey and twey* (CHAUCER); and so still: two and two, yet also: by twos and threes; by tens of thousands (MACAULAY).

The Pronoun.

The **pronoun**, which represents a noun in the sentence, or, more correctly, has the nature of a noun, and has thence its name, is, by its value and idea, distinguished from a mere sign for a substantive or adjective, although it partly serves to avoid the repetition of the same noun.

In their form and descent the English pronouns rest upon the Anglosaxon; the Old-French, which introduced a few indefinite pronouns, was here of little influence.

In their meaning the pronouns are divided into several classes: A. the **personal**, with the possessive derived from them, B. the **demonstrative**, C. the **interrogatory**, D. the **relative**, E. the **indefinite** pronoun.

A. The Personal Pronoun:

It has forms for the so-called three persons: the person **speaking**, the person **spoken to** and the person **spoken of**, not sharing in the conversation, and, generally, the **subject spoken of**. The second person, and even the first, can be used of the **personified thing**. The personal pronoun becomes **reflective**, or **referring backwards**, if it appears as the object in a sentence, in which the notion of activity is imagined as reacting upon the subject, the active person or thing, itself. For the pronoun used reflectively English has in part streng-

thened pronominal forms, which we shall not consider till after the discussion of the possessive pronouns proceeding immediately from the personal ones, since they partly repose upon the latter.

- a) The three persons of the **personal pronoun**, in the narrower sense, or the fundamental forms for the possessive and the reflective pronoun, are undistinguished in gender in the first and the second person, but in the singular of the third person are of three genders, as in Anglosaxon. They form a plural of the first person, in which the speaker comprehends himself with others; the second, in which he comprehends several persons spoken to; and the third, in which he comprehends several objects spoken about. It is throughout without distinction of gender in form. The Anglosaxon dual of the first and second person has been abandoned.

The **plural of the third person** is in Modern-English no longer formed from the Anglosaxon *he, heó, hit*, which is still the standard for the singular, but from another demonstrative pronoun *se (pe), seó (peó), þát*, whereas Old-English long preserved the genuine plural.

The **genitive** of the singular and of the plural comes, as such, no longer under review, but has coalesced with the possessive pronoun. Old-English still presents some decided genitive forms. We exhibit the genitive forms with the rest.

First Person.

Sing. Nom.	<i>I, ego, Angl. ic, Old-Engl. ic, ich, iche, I</i>
Gen.	<i>mine, mei, Angl. mīn, Old-Engl. min, mine</i>
Dat. and Acc.	<i>me, mihi, me, Angl. Dat. mē, Acc. mēc, mē, Old-Engl. me, mee</i>
Plur. Nom.	<i>we, nos, Angl. vē, Old-Engl. we, wee</i>
Gen.	<i>our, nostri, nostrum, Angl. ūser, ūre, Old-Engl. oure</i>
Dat. and Acc.	<i>us, nobis, nos, Angl. Dat. ūs, Acc. ūsic, ūs, Old-Engl. us</i>

Second Person.

Sing. Nom.	<i>thou, tu, Angl. þu, Old-Engl. thou, thow</i>
Gen.	<i>thine, tui, Angl. þín, Old-Engl. thín, thine</i>
Dat. and Acc.	<i>thee, tibi, te, Angl. Dat. þē, Acc. þēc, þē, Old-Engl. the, thee</i>
Plur. Nom.	<i>ye, you, vos, Angl. gē, Old-Engl. ye, yee</i>
Gen.	<i>your, vestri, vestrum, Angl. eóver, Old-Engl. youre</i>
Dat. and Acc.	<i>you, vos, Angl. Dat. eóv, Acc. eóvic, eóv, Old-Engl. you</i>

Third Person.

Singular.

	masc.	fem.	neutr.
Nom.	<i>he</i> , is, Angl. <i>he</i> , Old-Engl. <i>he</i> , <i>hee</i>	<i>she</i> , ea, Angl. <i>heô</i> , Old-English <i>heo</i> (<i>hoe</i>), <i>scho</i> , <i>she</i>	<i>it</i> , id, Angl. <i>hit</i> , Old-Engl. <i>hit</i> , <i>hyt</i> , <i>it</i>
Gen.	<i>his</i> , ejus, Angl. <i>his</i> , Old-Engl. <i>his</i>	<i>her</i> , ejus, Anglos. <i>hire</i> (<i>heore</i>), Old- Engl. <i>hire</i> , <i>here</i>	<i>its</i> , ejus, Angl. <i>his</i> , Old-Engl. <i>his</i>
Dat. and Acc.	<i>him</i> , ei, eum, Angl. Dat. <i>him</i> (<i>heom</i>), Acc. <i>hine</i>	<i>her</i> , ei, eam, Angl. Dat. <i>hire</i> (<i>heore</i>), Acc. <i>hî</i> , <i>hig</i> .	<i>it</i> , ei, id, Angl. Dat. <i>him</i> (<i>heom</i>), Acc. <i>hit</i> , Old-English <i>him</i> , <i>hit</i> , <i>hyt</i> .

Plural.

masc. fem. neutr.

Nom.	<i>they</i> , ii, eae, ea, Angl. <i>pâ</i> , Old-Engl. <i>heo</i> , <i>hei</i> , <i>hii</i> , <i>hi</i> , Angl. <i>hie</i> , <i>hig</i> , <i>hî</i> (f. <i>heô</i>)
Gen.	<i>their</i> , eorum, earum, eorum, Anglo. <i>pâra</i> , (<i>pæra</i>) <i>hira</i> , (<i>heora</i>)
Dat. and Acc.	<i>them</i> , iis, eos, eas, ea, Angl. Dat. <i>pâm</i> , (<i>pæm</i>), Acc. <i>pâ</i> (<i>heom</i>), Acc. <i>hie</i> (<i>high</i> , <i>hî</i>)

The Old-English also had the forms *thai*, *they*, *thei* — *thare*, *theire* — *thaym*, yet in the oblique case it a long time preferred *hire*, *hem*. See the demonstrative pronoun. Upon *she* see above p. 173. Moreover the Saxon Chronicle 1140 has *scæ* = *ea*. For the dative and accusative of pronouns the form of the dative has in general early remained the standard, although both partly coincided even in Anglosaxon.

In Modern-English the case common to the dative and the accusative with the particles *of* and *to* is employed as the substitute for the genitive and the dative: of me, to me; of thee, to thee; of him, to him; of her, to her; of it, to it; of us, to us; of you, to you; of them, to them. In the dative relation this happens where its distinction from the accusative appears needful. The denoting of the cases by *of* and *to* is also very old with the pronoun: In the spyt of me (PERCY Rel. p. 2. II.). *Thanne ne seo we nozt of hire* (WRIGHT Popul. Treat. p. 133.). *Som of you* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 8.). *Many of hem* (MAUNDEV. p. 13.). *Yt worp an other Troie to pe* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 15.). *Then begynnys to grufe to us mery chere* (TOWNELEY MYST. p. 32.). Instances of the genuine genitive form are, on the other hand, found; for example, in *Piers Ploughman*; *hir* neither (p. 67.); *hir eyther* (p. 212. 446.); *hir noon* (= none) (p. 237.); *hir oon fordoth hir oother* (p. 373.).

In the first person we find *ich late*: *Ichyll* (I will) (SKELTON I. 95.). *Ich am* (102.). The oblique case *mee* with *shee*, *thee*,

wee, yee is still cited by the grammarian Wallis as a regular form; in the seventeenth century, however, the enclitic forms mostly appear with *e*: me, she &c. Mommsen *Romeo and Juliet* p. 30. The plural has been long in use instead of the singular as a plural of majesty: Duke: Our old and faithful friend, *we* are glad to see you (SHAKESPEARE *Meas. for Meas.*). Sometimes *us* has been shortened into *'s*: I'll bring thee to the present business which now's upon's (SHAKESPEARE *Temp.*). Let's not quarrel (OTWAY).

The second person is usual in the singular as the address among quakers, in poetry in regard to persons and personified objects, as well as in prayer as an address to God. It has also not gone out of use as an expression for familiarity and affection, even mixed with the plural: *Thou* say'st I preach, Lorenzo! (YOUNG *N. Th.* 2, 62.). O Lord my God, *Thou* art very great (Ps. 104, 1.). O holy Night! from *thee* I learn to bear What man has borne before (LONGFELLOW). And *thou*, too, whoso'er *thou* art, That readest this brief psalm (ID.). Sophia, can I then ruin *thee*! (FIELDING *T. J.*). But it also becomes an expression of depreciation and contempt: Damnation seize *thee*, fool, blockhead! (ID.). Even John Wallis says: *Singulari vero numero si quis alium compellet, vel dedignantis illud esse solet, vel familiariter blandientis* (p. 92.). Now the plural serves in general as an address without regard to station and relationship, like the singular in Old-English. The plural, however, is also early found, as it seems, as an expression of courtesy: And *ye*, sir clerk, lat be your schamfastnesse (CHAUCER 842.). Even in the address to Venus in Chaucer the plural stands mingled with the singular: And if *ye* wol nat so, my lady sweete, Than pray I *the* . . Gif me my love, *thou* blisful lady dere (2256.).

The nominative (also vocative) of the plural *ye* has in Modern-English yielded to *you*. John Wallis still cites *ye* as the nominative, but in the polite address lets *you* alone pass. Alexander Gill gives, as the nominative and vocative *ye* and *you*, as the accusative, *you*. *You* was in the first case used only emphatically, as especially in Spenser. In common life, as well as in poetry *ye* still continues alongside of *you*: And *you*, the brightest of the stars above, *Ye* saints . . Be witness (ROWE). Were *you*, *ye* fair, but cautious whom *ye* trust (ID.). Descend, *ye* Nine! descend and sing (POPE). *Ye* may no more contend (LONGFELLOW). In popular speech *y* has been sometimes cast out: Lookee friend! (FIELDING). Lookee d'ye see = look ye! do you see? — *Ye* also sometimes appears with an elided *e* before vowels: *Y'*are always false or silly (OTWAY).

In literature even the interchange of the oblique case *you* with *ye* is widely diffused: A south-west blow *on ye*! (SHAKESPEARE *Temp.*). Vain pomp and glory of the world, I hate *ye* (ID.). Heav'n guard *ye* all! (OTWAY). The knaves . . laugh *at ye* (ID.). Faith, I'll fit *ye* (ROWE). This hour I throw *ye* off (CONGREVE). I know *ye* all (L. HUGHES). Hold your tongues, both *of ye*, says the mole (RICHARDSON). I fear *ye* not, I know *ye* (L. BYRON).

But where of *ye*, oh tempests! is the gaol? (ID.). I seek *ye* vainly (BRYANT). Bethink *ye*, before *ye* make answer (LONGFELLOW). For other confusions of cases see below.

The third person *he*, which sometimes appears before a consonant shortened into *h*: Although he had much wit, *H*'was very shy of using it (BUTLER Hudibr.), is often confounded with *a* (*a'*) by the older dramatists, as well as dialectically by the uneducated: Who e'er *a'* was, *a'* show'd a mounting mind (SHAKSPEARE Love's L. L. 4. 1.). Let him take no delight nor no penance; but *a'* must fast three days a week (ID. 1. 2.); and often: A troublesome old blade . . but *a'* keeps as good wines . . as any in the whole country (GOLDSMITH). This *a* even serves for all genders *he*, *she*, *it*, *as*, for instance, in Herefordshire, as well as *ou* in Gloucestershire; *a* is also used for *they* in Shropshire.

A shortening of *they* into *th'* is not unknown to the more easy style: And till *th'* were storm'd and beaten out, Ne'er left the fortified redoubt (BUTLER).

In Modern-English we frequently find *'em* instead of *them* in poetry as well as in common life: He has lost his fellows, And strays about to find *'em* (SHAKSP. Temp.). Go you, and give *'em* welcome and reception (OTWAY). Ere long I mean to meet *'em* face to face (ROWE). "The sceptre and the golden wreath of royalty Seem hung within my reach." — Then take *'em* to you And wear *'em* long and worthily (ID.). Summon *'em*, Assemble *'em*: I will come forth and shew Myself among *'em* (TH. SOUTHERN). This *em* is widely diffused dialectically and answers to the old *hem* (not *them*), which still lives in the Western dialects, where it is also confounded with *he* and *him*.

In Old-English the dative form *it*: *him*, and the accusative form *hit*, it were usual, yet both were frequently made equal to each other in usage: *It* receyvethe into *him* 40 othere ryvers (MAUNDEV. p. 7.). To don *it* (Dat.) worschipe and reverence (p. 165.). An interchange of *he* with *it* is also found: And alle be it so, that *it* (the tree, Anglosaxon *n.*) be drye, natheles *jit he* berethe gret vertue (ID. p. 69.). Dialectically even now *he* appears for *it* in all cases.

The confusion of the oblique case of pronouns and the nominative, specimens of which in the literary language have already been cited, is widely diffused in the popular dialects. Thus *I* is used instead of *me*, *he* instead of *him*, *she* instead of *her* &c. and conversely, for instance, in Yorkshire, Hampshire, Gloucestershire, Warwickshire, Worcestershire, Herefordshire &c. This confusion is also to be met with in the written language. The employment of the oblique case for the nominative is analogous to the French manner of employing *moi*, *toi*, *lui* as nominatives, and is old: Lord, y-worshiped be *the* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 181.). This mostly happens where the pronoun does not proclitically precede its verb, and, generally, where a particular emphasis seems to rest upon the pronoun: Nor *thee* nor *them*, thrice noble Tamburlaine, Shall want my heart to be with gladness fill'd (MARLOWE I. p. 30.). Scotland and *thee* did each other live (DRYDEN). We

shall shortly see which is the fittest object of scorn you or me (GOLDSMITH). Better than *him*, I am before, knows me (SHAKESPEARE As You like it 1. 1.). I would not be *thee*, nuncle (KING L. 1, 4.). The converse case is more striking in the written language. Passages of this sort, as well as of the former, in Spencer and Shakspeare, have been expunged by critics; but even the later confusion is not to be wholly denied, in which we of course disregard those cases in which the adjectives are used substantively. One instance is the above mentioned form *ye* (see p. 284.), and: That I kiss aught but *he* (SHAKSP. Cymb. 2. 3.). You have seen Cassio and *she* together (OTH. 4, 2.), where Collier has her; Earth up hath swallowed all my hopes but *she* (ROM. AND JUL. 1, 2.), where Mommsen regards the words, all my hopes but *she* as blended into one single uninflected substantive, to which I could not assent. *She* as an accusative is found, even in the fourteenth century, in Adam Davie. See Mommsen's Romeo and Juliet p. 26. Delius's Shakspeare Lexicon p. XIX. Compare also the striking passage: And the we, Following the signs, woo'd but the sign of *she* (SHAKSP. Love's L. L. 5, 2.).

- b) The possessive pronoun presents itself in two different forms, one standing attributively in immediate connection with, and before the substantive, the other outside of this connection. Both (with the exception of *its*) are derived from the Anglosaxon genitive. They are, in Modern-English, incapable of inflection; case prepositions, as well as other prepositions, stand before the attributive pronoun and its substantive, as well as before the unconnected pronoun, which can also be used substantively. In the third person, three genders of the singular are distinguished.

Connected possessive pronouns are:

- α) those proceeding from the singular:
my (mine), Anglosaxon *mīn*, Old-English *min*, mine, my, mi.
thy (thine), Anglosaxon *þīn*, Old-English *thin*, thine, thy, thi.
his, Anglosaxon *his* (but also possessive *sīn*), Old-Engl. *his*.
her, Anglosaxon *hire*, Old-English *hir*, her, hire, here.
its, Anglosaxon *his*, Old-English *his*.
- β) those proceeding from the plural:
our, Anglosaxon *ūser* (*ūre*), our, oure.
your, Anglosaxon *eóver*, Old-English *your*, youre.
their, Anglosaxon *pāra* (*pæra*), Old-English *hir*, her, hire, here,
heore (Anglosaxon *hira*) and *their*, *there* &c.

Un connected, corresponding to those:

mine — thine — his, hers, its — ours — yours — theirs.

In the Anglosaxon *his* (English *his*), *hire* (English *her*) and *hira* as well as *pāra* (English *their*, Old-English *hire* &c.) were in use only as genitives. The adjective *sīn*, *suus*, not *ejus*, could hardly be found in Old-English. The Anglosaxon also, from the dual of the first two persons formed the possessives *uncer* and *incer* (Greek *συνικός* and *συνικός*), which have not passed into English.

My, thy are abbreviations from *mine, thyne*, forms of the pronoun mostly appearing proclitically. Old-English fluctuated at first between *min, thin* and *mi, thi*, where they stand before the substantive: *myn soule* and *my lif* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I, 30.). *pi sostren* and *pyn sustren* (IB. 31.). Yet the usage speedily establishes itself of bringing in the fuller form before vowels and *h*, and of casting off the *n* before other consonants: *Thin* highe pride (MAUNDEV. p. 18.). Do of *thin* hosen and *thi* schon (p. 59.). Rys up, *my* wif, *my* love, *my* lady fre (CHAUCER 10012.). With *thin* eyghen columbine (10015.). Thow hast me wounded in *myn* hert (10019.). *Myn* owne name (1558.). In Modern-English before vowels and a mute *h*, *mine* and *thine* are still often used, although Shakspeare, for instance, as well as moderns, have still sometimes the full forms before an aspirated *h*, as well as before a consonant *y*, like the Old-English: Give every man *thine* ear, but few *thy* voice (SHAKSPEARE Hamlet.). Without the . . true avouch Of *mine* own eyes (IB.). See Delius's Shakspeare Lex. p. XIX. Thy glorious day is o'er, but not *thine* years of shame (L. BYRON). My chiefest joy is to contribute to *thine* every wish (ID.). Look, then, into *thine* heart (LONGFELLOW). And tears came to *mine* eye (ID.). The strength of *thine* own arm (ID.). Grammarians reprove this usage, widely diffused, especially in poetry.

If the possessives derived from the first and second person stand attributively after their substantive, they have the fuller form, as in Old-English. Old-English: Brother *myn* (CHAUCER 9365.). Grisilde *myn* (8927.). Arcita, cosyn *myn* (1283.); in moderns: I say that ye be seruauyntys *myne* (SKELTON I. 231.). You brother *mine* (SHAKSPEARE Temp. 5, 1.).

His was in Old-English the possessive pronoun referred to the third person of the masculine and neuter gender. Its (often also spelt *it's*, as *her's, our's* and *your's* was formerly frequently written) referred to the neuter, occurring at first also without an *s* as *it, ith*, and which was still unknown to Spenser, was formed in Shakspeare's age, in whom it rarely occurs. The grammarian Alexander Gil does not cite it; John Wallis, on the other hand, calls it the possessive of *it*. See Mommsen's *Romeo and Juliet* p. 22. It rarely occurs as an unconnected pronoun.

The connection of the possessive pronoun of the third person (*his*) with a substantive, especially a proper name, in the genitive, to which the inflection is then usually wanting, is peculiar: In characters as red as *Mars his* heart (SHAKSP. Troil. and Cr. 5, 2.). An if my brother had my shape, And I had *his*, *Sir Robert his* (KING JOHN 1. ed. Collier). *Vincentio his* son (TAMING of the Shr. 1, 1. where Collier has *Vincentio's*). The *duke his* gallies (TWELFTH N. 3, 3. in Collier The county's g.). For *Jesus Christ his* sake (English Liturgy). In: Here repose Angelo's, Alfieri's bones, and *his* The starry Galileo (L. BYRON) the position is reversed. Strange to say, in the seventeenth century, as some English grammarians do even now, the *s* of the genitive was derived from this, which has still its analogy in Lowdutch: Vatter

sīn hūs; *mutter ér dôk*; *dén sīn gâren* (ejus hortus) &c. Although the subjoined pronoun in this case makes the inflection of the substantive superfluous, it is originally nothing else than a pleonastic repetition of the substantive notion by the pronoun, which is especially familiar to Old-English in the personal pronoun: *He Tityus*; *he Moyses* &c. (CHAUCER). And there *Sir Gawaine he her wed* (PERCY Rel. p. 201. I.). The *tanner he* tooke his good cow-hide (IB. 111. II.). And slough *him Oliphernus* (CHAUCER 9242.). And made *him Mardoché* . . . enhaunced for to be (9247.). That ilke wedding merye Of *his* Philologie and *he* (him Tyrwh.) *Mercurie* (9608.).

The Old-English used particularly *hire*, here as the possessive for the third person of the plural: They holden *here* grete conseilless (MAUNDEV. p. 16.); yet the pronoun now in use is also found: *Thare* provand (TOWNELEY MYST. p. 9.). With alle *thare* entent (p. 22.).

The joining of the *s* in the unconnected pronouns *hers*, *its*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, which is wanting in *mine* and *thine*, manifestly arose from the *s* of the genitive, and has been transferred from the genuine genitive *his* not only to it, but also to the others, even Anglosaxon possessives and the genitives *her*, *their*. *Mine* and *thine* might have been protected from the joining on of the *s* by the attributive forms *my*, *thy* having been early, with few exceptions, separated in usage from those standing alone, *mine*, *thine*. The image of a syntactical genitive relation perceptible in an *s* was, moreover, with the disconnected forms, close, and was perhaps connected the recollection of the primitive genitive forms, which certainly lacked *s* in Anglosaxon. The *s* is found early even in Old-English, although not constantly: The *dyversitee* that is betwene *oure* feythe and *theires* (MAUNDEV. p. 20.); on the other hand: *Noght* aftir *oure* lawe, but aftir *here* (p. 80.). — This gold is nought *oures* (4201.). *Hom* to *myn* hous, or ellis unto *youres* (14200.). He was, *pardy*, an old felaw of *youres* (14087.). Whether it be likir *oure* professioun Or *heris* that swymmen in possessioun (CHAUCER 7508.); on the other hand: I wol be *your* in all that ever I may (16716.). *Whan* ye been his all hole, as he is *your* (IB. Troil. and Cr. II. 587.). So still later: I am all *yours* (SKELTON I. 204.). I am *your* in every pointe (IB. 49.). The forms, *hisn*, *hern*, *ourn*, *yourn* are dialectical.

The substantive use of the unconnected pronouns in the plural, as a term for persons, without reference to a preceding substantive (*mei*, *tui*, *sui*, *nostri*, *vostri*) is in use in Old-, as well as in Modern-English: Old-English: *pat* where Brut and *his* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 21.). To *pe* & to alle *pyne* (p. 15.). In the spyte of *thyne* and of the (PERCY Rel. p. 3. I.): Modern-English In a few hours The tempest may break out which overwhelms thee And *thine* and *mine* (L. BYRON). The deadliest foe of all our race, And hateful unto me and *mine* (LONGFELLOW).

Anglosaxon declined the possessive pronouns and distinguished in part the genders and numbers by their terminations. Old-English offers, except for *my*, *thy*, forms with and without *e* at the

end, which however belong for the greatest part both to the singular and to the plural and to the different genders. Traces are nevertheless to be found that the forms in *e*, which seem to belong to the feminine oftener than to the masculine in the singular, belong especially to the plural. This is decidedly the case in Piers Ploughman with regard to the forms *his* and *hise*, the latter of which as a plural formed after another word, belongs adjectively and substantively to the plural. Compare: *Hise* wordes, *hise* eris, *hise* bulles (p. 5.). *Hise* goodes (p. 288.). To God . . And so to *hise* seintes (p. 289.). For hym and for alle *hise* (suos) (p. 261.). Compare also passages like the following: As a mayde . . *Hire* moder forsaketh, *Hir* fader and alle *hire* frendes (p. 289.); whereas *hir*, *eorum*, *earum* = French *leur*, remains unchanged: *Hir* wittes (p. 297.). *Hir* robes (p. 309.). Thus also *min*, *thin* commonly stand alongside of *my*, *thy* in the singular and plural, yet *mine*, *thine* seem used particularly in the plural: *pine* fon bep in ech half (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 114.). Al pat ssal come by *pyne* day (= Anglosaxon *dagum*) & by *myne* noȝt (p. 291.). *'s* sometimes appears as the abbreviation of *his* and even *'r* of *our*: How fares the king and *'s* followers? (SHAKESPEARE Temp.). There's not a hair on *'s* head (Two Gentlem.). By *'r* lakin! (Temp. 3, 3.).

- c) The **reflective** pronoun was originally naught else but the personal one in a particular syntactical relation. Although even in Anglosaxon the pronoun strengthened by *silf*, *sylf*, *ipse*, which is not merely reflective, likewise occurred in a reflective relation, this was far from being deemed necessary.

Thus in Old-English also the unstrengthened forms were commonly employed at the same time reflectively: *Heo* zarkededen *hem* (they made themselves ready) (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 15.). *Hii* armed *hem* (II. 405.). *Sche* turned *hire* toward him (MAUNDEV. p. 24.). *Some men* hasten *hem* and peynen *hem* (p. 58.). And *I* wole erely schappe *me* therfore (CHAUCER 811.). And thanne schaltou nought repente *the* (9360.). And spedith *you* faste (9801.). A cook *thei* hadde with *hem* (381.). Modern-English has not abandoned this usage in poetry, and has often preserved it even in prose, especially if the reflective pronoun depends upon a preposition: There will *she* hide *her* (SHAKESPEARE Much Ado. &c.). *Signor Antonio* commends *him* to you (Merch. of Ven.); and so: *I* do repent *me*; prepare *thee*; haste *thee*; two such opposed foes encamp *them* &c. (ID.). To their salute *he* bends *him* slightly (L. BYRON). And *sportive dolphins* bend *them* through the spray (ID.). *They* sate *them* down beside the stream (SOUTHEY). Here will *we* rest *us* (LONGFELLOW). *He* looks about *him* with doubtful face (ID.). *The captive* yields *him* to the dream of freedom (BRYANT). *He* speeds *him* toward the olive grove (ID.). — *The young prince* promised to take upon *him* the obligations &c. (W. SCOTT). *My uncle* stopped here for a minute to look about *him* (DICKENS).

The **strengthened** forms of the personal pronoun, which are employed reflectively, especially in prose, have arisen from forms

of personal pronouns with self appended. They of course occur unreflectively also, as is always the case in the nominative, partly, appositively, as in: 'Tis *he himself*! (ROWE). The townhall *itself* . . . was in imminent peril (MACAULAY); partly without a preceding pronoun or substantive: *Myself* will decide it (WEBSTER). I am *myself*; but call me what you please (TH. SOUTHERN). May maledictions fall and blast *Thyself* and lineage! (LONGFELLOW). They form plural forms and are capable of the periphrastic case formation by of and to, as well as of the construction with other prepositions.

The strengthened personal pronouns, appearing only in one form at once, and whose origin is not quite cleared up, are the following:

Singular: 1. Person *myself*. 2. Person *thyself*.
Plural: (ourselves) *ourselves*. (yourselves) *yourselves*.

Singular: 3. Person m. *himself*. f. *herself*. n. *itself*.

Plural: *themselves*, Old-Engl. *hemsself*, *hemselven*.

In Anglosaxon *silf*, *sylf*, *sälf*, *seolf* was only an adjective, which used to be associated with the personal pronoun in the same case and number to strengthen it: ic *silf*, he *selfa*, his *silfes*, me *silfum* &c., in which strong mingle with weak forms of the *silf*. According to Rask ed. Thorpe p. 54. in the Anglosaxon nominative the dative of the personal pronoun is sometimes found prefixed to the *silf*: *pu pe self* &c., according to Grimm 4, 360. in the gen. S. f. the possessive pronoun sometimes instead of the personal pronoun: *minre selfre*. Grimm in another place explains the forms *myself*, *thyself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves* as genitive forms, when also the *s* in *ourselves*, *yourselves*, at present passing as the sign of the plural, answering to the *s* in *ours*, *yours*, would be to be regarded as that of the genitive, and only it remain standing as the nominative, *him*, *them* as primitive datives, whereas in *her*, the genitive and dative are confounded. The confusion of cases might cause the genitive forms at first dependent to be thereafter used independent by, and the oblique cases *him*, *them* to find a further support in the Old-French *lui meisme* &c., as well as it to be preserved in distinction to *him*. However, since in Anglosaxon, as well as in Old-Highdutch, the interchange of the genitive of the personal pronoun with the possessive pronoun occurs, and in Old-English the distinction of a genitive from the possessive, allied in form, in the pronoun standing before a noun, early disappeared, so that the possessive alone was seen, the invasion of the possessive in those forms might, not wholly without reason, be asserted, to which the opinion that *self* was regarded as a substantive is nowise requisite. I find, however, in Old-English, hardly even in the latest times, an *s* in *ours*, *yours* analogous to the *s* in *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*, as Old-English always offers *self*, *selve* and *selve*; that *s*, as a real sign of the plural, seems to belong to a modern period. A peculiar analogy to *self* is afforded by one in Old-English, in a like sense: *Walkyng myn one* (= *myself*, alone) (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 154.). That *oon doth*, *alle dooth*,

And ech dooth *bi his one*; for which later stands by himselfe (p. 341.). I *mine on* (CHAUCER Dr. 1019.). — For themselves northern dialects have theirsels, in analogy to ourselves &c. Compare: They had gret desyre to prove *their selves* (FROYSSART'S CRONYCLE). Self passes in English primarily as an adjective, ipse, idem: In *the selve* place (CHAUCER 11706.). In *that selve* moment (2586.). *Thy selve* neyghebour (4535.); and so still with the moderns (see Hilpert's Dictionary s. v.), also in composition with same: The *self-same* thing (SHAKSPEARE Love's L. L. 1, 2.). Thou by *the self-same* means I learned, may'st learn it (H. WALPOLE).

In Old-English the compounds of self, selve, selven with pronouns are commonly so employed that the import of a substantive is manifestly not attributed to the self: At po last he was *hym self* yslawe (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 19.). Righte as *him self* seyde (MACNDEV. p. 97.). Why I suffre or noght suffre *Thiself* hast noght to doone (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 224.). He moste *himselfen* hyde (CHAUCER 1479.). I wot *my selve* best (9334.). Scho bad me dereliche drawe, and drynke to *hirsselfene* (MORTE ARTHURE in HALLIWELL s. v. dereliche)!

Yet we cannot disguise that, even early, self is also regarded as a substantive: *Myself* hath ben the whippe (CHAUCER 5757.). Who so . . thurgh arghnesse *his owne self* forgetith (HOCCLEVE P. p. 56.); and this is the case down to the latest time. Attributive determinations frequently precede the self, when the pronoun always stands in the form of the possessive: Euin *My verie owne selfe* it was (JACK JUGLER). To *thine own self* be true (SHAKSP. Hamlet). The ministry . . hurried thence me and *thy crying self* (Temp.). *Their proper selves* (IB.). The substance of *your perfect self* (Two Gentlem. &c.). To *our gross selves* (Meas. for Meas.). What I show, *thyself* may freely on thyself bestow (DRYDEN). *My very self* was yours (OTWAY). The truth . . Which here to this *my other self* I vow (ROWE). He feels of all *his former self* posset (L. BYRON). The construction of self with the genitive is not rare. It is also used as a substantive without any more particular determination: *Orpheus' self* may heave his head (MILTON). 'Tis *Phoebus' self* (THOMSON). Agis, who saw Even *Spartas' self* to servile avarice sunk (ID.). Till *Glory's self* is twilight (L. BYRON). *Self* is an eloquent advocate (MACKLIN). A truth, which . . purifies from *self* (L. BYRON). Then, all forgetful of *self*, she wandered into the village (LONGFELLOW).

The *s* in ourselves, yourselves &c. as a sign of the plural, is by subsequent writers, and even in Modern-English, found to be absent where a plural comes in question: Let vs not apply *our selfe* therto (SKELTON l. 203.). Countyng *themselfe* clerkes (207.). Learning is but an adjunct to *ourself*, And where we are, our learning likewise is (SHAKSPEARE Love's L. L. 4, 3.). In modern times *ourself*, *yourself* frequently appear instead of the plural forms, where *one* (especially an exalted) person speaks in the plural of himself, or the pronoun is referred to a *one* person addressed as you: *We* create, in absence of *ourselves*, Our uncle York lord governor of England (SHAKSPEARE Rich. II.).

We have saved *ourselves* that trouble (says the writer) (FIELDING).
 You, my Prince, *yourself* a soldier will redress him (L. BYRON).
 You have made *yourself* to me a father (OTWAY). Yet this is
 departed from with regard to ourselves.

To the indefinite pronoun, not referring to definite persons, *one's self* is substituted, in which the substantive character attributed to the self explains the genitive: Out of love to *one's self*, one must speak better of a friend than an enemy (FIELDING).

B. The demonstrative pronoun points to the object as a sensuous one, present in space and time, then, in a wider sense, to the object already named and known. So far as it points to an object just about to be spoken of, it has been called **pointing forwards and determinative**.

The demonstrative pronouns of Modern-English are *this*, *that* and *yon* (*yond*, *yonder*), the two former of which have a plural form, the latter remains unchanged in the plural. They stand both attributively and absolutely. *Yon*, which occurs but seldom and mostly only in poets, hardly ever appears except attributively. None of them having any case forms, the case prepositions *of* and *to* serve to make up for these.

Singular: *this*, hic, haec, hoc, Anglosaxon m. Nom. *pēs*, f. *peós*, n. *pis*, Old-English *this*.

Plural: *these*, Anglosaxon m. f. n. nom. and accus. *pās*, yet even in Anglosaxon *pis* stands as the nominative of all genders of the singular and plural; Old-English *this*, *thise*, *these*.

Singular: *that*, ille, illa, illud, Anglosaxon m. nom. *se* (*pē*), f. *seó* (*peó*), n. *thāt*, Old-English *that*.

Plural: *those*, (Angl. *pās*) Anglosaxon m. f. n. nom. and accus. *pā*, Old-English *thai*, *thei*, especially *tho*, but also *those*.

Singular: } *yon*, *yond*, *yonder*, Anglosaxon only adverb *geond*, *jānd*,
 Plural: } ille, illa, illud illuc, Gothic adverb *jāind*, *jāindre*,
 = *ἐντὶ*, pronoun *jáins*, *jáina*, *jáinata*,
 Old-norse *hinn*, *hin*, *hitt*; Old-Engl. *yonne*, *yond*, *yonder*.

This and *these* seem forms subsequently dissimilated, both having the Anglosaxon *pis* for their foundation, since in Old-English they both have the same sound or are only distinguished by an *e* subjoined in the plural. *pis* is commonly the plural in Robert of Gloucester, and it is found even in the sixteenth century: Take *this* our thanks (SKELTON I. 194.). Fye on *this* dyce (45.). *This* nonnes (241.). *This* freers (18.). Alongside of it *thise* is early in use: Alle *thise* floodes (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 24.) in Piers Ploughman, Chaucer and so on. *These* is the later form, formerly *theise* also was found: of *theise* 4 (MAUNDEV. p. 136.); *theose* is likewise cited. *These* occurs dialectically for the singular.

That is the neuter in the singular of that pronoun which in

thei, them has assumed the place of the personal pronoun of the third person in the plural. The plural those, which is referred to that, has developed itself from the Anglosaxon plural *pās* belonging to this, while Old-English had also the genuine plural form *tho*: *þo* twei children (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 110.). In the dust and in the powder of *tho* hilles (MAUNDEV. p. 17.). Thou schalt be wedded unto oon of *tho*, That have for the so moche care and wo (CHAUCER 2353.); still in Skelton: All *tho* that were on my partye (I. 202.); on the other hand even those: Of *those* that welle has wroght (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 22.).

The pronoun *this* is, like *se*, *seó*, *pāt* even in Anglosaxon, often weakened into an article in Old-English. See the article. In Modern-English *this* and *that* (the latter along with its relative signification) maintain their demonstrative character, and in opposition *this* is applied to the nearer, *that* to the more remote object: What conscience dictates to be done, or warns me not to do, *This* teach me more than hell to shun, *That* more than heaven pursue (POPE); then they enter into the opposition generally without this reflection: The clangorous hammer in the tongue, *This* way, *that* way beaten and swung (LONGFELLOW). Where they stand alone, the employment of them is more confined to the conception of individuals; yet the immediately present is naturally mostly denoted by *this*, as the reference to the temporal present especially demands this: *This* day, be bread and peace my lot (POPE); when spaces of time also are considered, which comprehend also the immediate present or extend up to it: They told me . . . that, without some traditional shrugs, which had been on the stage *these hundred years*, I could never pretend to please (GOLDSMITH).

As a pronoun pointing forwards and referred to a relative correlative *that*, *those*, alone are used, alongside of which *he*, *she* and *they* with their cases appear in the sense of the Highdutch *derjenige*. In Old-English *tho* and the personal *hii* (plural) belong also to this class. Old-English readily used the plural substantively together with a substantive determination (with *of*) of persons: *Hii of Denemarch* flowe sone (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 378.). *Fram hem of Denemarche* (I. 295.). It was told us of *hem of the contree* (MAUNDEV. p. 298.). *Whan thei of the contree* herden it (p. 293.); in Shakespeare: *They in France, of the best rank* (HAMLET).

Dialects still frequently substitute them for *those*.

Yon, *yond*, *yonder*, the Highdutch *jener*, seems to incline in form chiefly to the Anglosaxon and Gothic pronoun; the pronoun was wanting in Anglosaxon as well as in Old-Saxon. All Modern-English forms are found in the more ancient language: My trouth is plight to *yonne* Skottish knyght (PERCY Rel. p. 8. I.). *zone* zong knyghte (HALLIWELL s. v.). *Yone* man (PERCEVAL 1266.). Into *yond* hole fayn wold I crepe (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 15.). Take *yond* ploghe (p. 18.). *Yond* man (198.). Seest thou not *Yonder* hall, Ellen? (PERCY Rel. p. 210. I.). The Old-Scottish has also *yon*, *yond*, they are also cited in English dictionaries in the seventeenth century (Engl. Dict. 1691.). The moderns often write *yon'*, as if *d* or even *der* were cast off, whereas *yon* is certainly the genuine pronominal form, and

most frequently use *yon* and *yonder*: Tho' by *yon* Heav'n I love thee (ROWE). By *yon* great ruling planet of the night! (OTWAY). View *yon*' vale of palms (J. HUGHES). *Yon* flow'ry harbours, *yonder* alleys green (MILTON). Nigh *yon* mountain (POPE). *Yonder* angry clouds Are big with spouting fires (H. WALPOLE). I will alight at *yonder* spring (LONGFELLOW). Used substantively it stands in the popular: What's *yon*?

Thilke, *thilk*, Anglosaxon *þȳlic*, *pylc* (i. e. *þȳ-lic*), *talis*, was used in Old-English in verse and prose for *talis*, is (qui), hic: Hors and Hengist . . Come to Kent *pilke* tyme (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 111.). And dryve aȝeyn ouer þe se *pilke* pat he nolde (124.). At *thilke* tyme (CHAUCER 3542). Al goth *thilke* weye (3035.). *Thilke* jüge is wys, that soone understandeth a matier (Tale of Melib. p. 328. Wright). The long abandoned pronoun has been preserved as *thilk* in Gloucestershire, in other dialects as *thec*, *thick*, *thuck* = *that*. — Alongside of *ilke*, *ilk*, Anglosaxon *ȳlc* (i. e. *ȳ-líc*), *idem*, which is to be distinguished from *ilk* = *each*, was in use, commonly with this, that before it, as in the Anglosaxon *se ȳlca*, *pāt ȳlca*: *This ilke* worthi knight (CHAUCER 64.). *That ilk* man which that now hath the (5600.). But tel me *this ilke* How I may save my soule (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 20.).

Their place is occupied in Modern-English by *such*, *talis*, unchanged in the plural, Anglosaxon *svelic*, *svilc*, *svylc* (Gothic *svaleiks*), Old-English *swylke*, *swiche*, also *selke* (DAME SIRIZ p. 5. 9.); *slike* (HALLIWELL s. v.), and *syke*: Herde ye euer *syke* another? (SKELTON l. 260.), which answers to the Highdutch: *solcher*, *derjenige*, and *the same*, *idem*, likewise standing in the singular and plural, which is wanting in Anglosaxon in which only the adverb: *same*, *item*, *pariter*, *saman*, *simul*, and *sam-* in composition = Latin *con* occurs, and whence the Old-English *sam*, *same*, in *same*, *samen*, *samyn* = *together* is derived: *Alle sam* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 27.). *Trus sam*, pack together (ib. 28.). The pronoun corresponds to the Old-norse *sami*, *sama*, *sama*, in the strong form *samr*, *sōm*, *samt*, Gothic *sama*, *samō*, *samō*, *ō samō*, with an article before it, as in English. It is strengthened by the self, very prefixed: the self same, the very same &c.; and, like the Old-English *ilke* has also the pronoun that before it: *That same* Biron I'll torture ere i go (SHAKSP. Love's L. L. 5, 2.). What lady is *that same*? (2, 1.). *Those same* precious metals of the history of which he can so learnedly descendant (BULWER). The older language has also this same: *This same* is he that slo his brother (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 18.). The ancient pronominal form *samyne* is remarkable: *That samyne* shalle bend Unto us (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 94.).

C. The Interrogative Pronoun.

The interrogative pronoun refers to an object or its quality, which is to be determined in another sentence, the answer. The interrogative pronoun accordingly points to an object, a person or thing, which is to be given by the answer, and is then used substantively, or disconnectedly; or, it has reference to the quality of an object, which is to be contained in the answer. The pronoun stands in a direct as well as in an indirect question. The pronouns

considered here are *who*, *what*, *whether* and *which*. Only *who* has preserved case forms, *what* and *which* make up by *of* and *to* for the lost case forms; the obsolete *whether* no longer forms any cases.

Plural forms are not distinguished from singular forms, so far as these pronouns are used in the plural.

Singular and Plural: Nom.	<i>who</i> , <i>quis</i> ?	Anglosaxon <i>hwa</i> , Old-Engl. <i>wha</i> , <i>who</i> , Old-Scottish <i>wha</i> , <i>quha</i>
Gen.	<i>whose</i> (of whom),	Anglosaxon <i>hwās</i> , Old-Engl. <i>whas</i> , <i>whos</i> .
Dat.	(to) <i>whom</i>	Anglos. <i>hwam</i> (<i>hwām</i>)
Acc.	<i>whom</i>	Anglos. <i>hwone</i> (<i>hwāne</i>), Old-Engl. <i>wham</i> , <i>whom</i>

Sing. and Plur.: Nom.	<i>what</i> , <i>quid</i> ? and <i>qualis</i> ? <i>qui</i> ?	Angl. <i>hwāt</i> , Old-Engl. <i>what</i>
Gen.	<i>of what</i>	Anglosaxon <i>hwās</i>
Dat.	<i>to what</i>	Anglos. <i>hwam</i> (<i>hwām</i>)
Acc.	<i>what</i>	Anglos. <i>hwāt</i>

Sing. and Plur.: Nom. *which*, *quis*, *quid*? properly *qualis*, *quale*? Anglosaxon *hwȳlic*, *hwȳlc*, *hwȳlc*, *hwȳlc*, Old-English *whilk*, *whiche*. Genitive *of which*. Dative *to which*. Acc. *which*.

Singular: Nom. and Acc. *whether*, *uter*, *utra*, *utrum*? Anglos. *hwāðer*, Old-English *wether*, *wheder*.

Who asks after persons; its old genitive corresponds only to the possessive genitive relation: *Whose* shall Monimia be? — No matter *whose* (OTWAY). *Whose* is the crime, but the false satrap's? (L. BYRON). The Anglosaxon Instrumental, which was common to *hwa* and the neuter *hwat*, *hwȳ*, *hwē*, *hū*, has transformed itself into the adverbial *why*? and *how*? The form of the dative *has*, as with other pronouns, become that of the oblique cases.

What, properly the neuter of *who*, still stands disconnected as a neuter; it then asks after the *What* of the thing and the nature of the thing: *What's* the matter? — *What* is it, my dear? (DICKENS). *What* are you doing? (WEBST.). Yet this disconnected *what* also asks after the quality of persons: *What* are you? as in Old-English and Anglosaxon: *What* is this womman, *quod* I, So worthili atired? (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 29.). But *what* they were, nothing yit he woot (CHAUCER 1705.). Anglosaxon: *Hwāt* is *pes*? *Quis* est *hic*? (MATTH. 4, 41). And thus this neutral *what* passes from the predicative into the attributive relation and stands as an adjective with substantives, as *qualis*, *qui*? in the plural as well as in the singular: I know *what* book that is (WEBST.). *What* cause withholds you then to mourn for him? (SHAKESPEARE J. C.). On the tendency of the same work, *what* three people will agree? (BULWER). Whereas *hwāt* in Anglosaxon has only a genitive after it, Old-English even makes that transition: *What* man . . schuld of his wepyng stinte? (CHAUCER 2, p. 324.

Wright). The union of *what* with an *a* added, often in an emotional question, in use as in Highdutch for centuries, rests upon the same process: *What a fair lady!* and beside her *What a handsome, graceful, noble rider!* (LONGFELLOW). Even Old-English has which *a*: Either asked oother . . . *Which a light* and a leme Lay bifore helle (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 376.). The *für* inserted in was *für ein* in Highdutch, to be pointed out in Germany since the sixteenth century, is so also in English: *What is he for a vicar?* *what is he for a lad?* (HALLIWELL v. *for*), even in Palsgrave. For here expresses originally the determination of a purpose, which touches on the idea of equality; united with the *what*, which asks after the quality of the thing, it makes up the question for the notion of a sort: What is he, for a vicar? What, in his purpose as a vicar, is he? For what as an indefinite pronoun see below: somewhat.

Which even in its Anglosaxon fundamental form, unites with the meaning *qualis?* the meaning *quis?*: *Heyle* is *mîn môdor?* (MARC. 3, 33) = *Who is my mother?* and the French *quel?* and *lequel?* It asks partly after the quality of an object, partly after the object which is to be determined among several with regard to its outward existence, and stands, both connectedly and disconnectedly, both for persons and things: *Which woman was it?* *Which is the house?* (WEBST.). *Which is the villain?* . . . *Which of these is he?* (SHAKSP. Much Ado &c.). Butler consented to perform the salute without marking for *which* of the two princes it was intended (MACAULAY). The spring, the summer, The childing autumn, angry winter, change Their wonted liveries; and the 'mazed world, By their increase, now knows not *which* is *which* (SHAKSP. Mids. N. Dr. 2, 1.). With the last passage compare the Old-English: *Sche wiste nat who was who* (CHAUCER 4299.); and below: *whether*.

Whether = *which* of two, which is equivalent to the conjunction *utrum*, *an*, as well as in Anglosaxon, stood in Anglosaxon both connectedly and disconnectedly, and, as being of three genders, referred to persons and things. It is now obsolete; the translation of the bible, presents it: *Whether of them twain did the will of his father* (MATTH. 21. 31.). *Whether is greater, the gift or the altar?* (23, 19.). Shew *whether* of these two thou hast chosen (ACTS 1, 24.). The popular language has: I can not tell *whether* is *whether* "I cannot distinguish the one from the other."

D. The Relative Pronoun.

The relative pronoun points to a preceding or supposed substantive notion. It is adapted to avoid the repetition of a preceding substantive, and, at the same time, undertakes the connecting of sentences.

We discriminate adjective and substantive pronouns of this class. Both sorts of pronouns have no peculiar forms, but are originally interrogative pronouns, or a demonstrative pronoun, whose inflection has been already glanced at.

The adjective ones, pointing back to a substantive notion, are the interrogative *which* and the demonstrative *that*; to these the originally substantive interrogative *who* has associated itself. *Who* and

what are substantive ones, for which, in their reference to a presupposed person or thing, a relative pronoun might be substituted. *That*, as originally neuter, therefore also of a substantive nature, betrays also here and there this twofold character. Moreover, relative sentences often border hard on indirect interrogative sentences, whereby many peculiar applications of pronouns originally interrogative are to be explained.

In Anglosaxon a relative pronoun was wholly wanting. To express the relation backwards it either used the indeclinable particle *pe*, alone or in conjunction with the demonstrative *se, seó, pát*, to which it was suffixed, as it was prefixed to the pronoun *he, heó, hit*.

Which is by its nature adapted to be referred to names both of persons and of things, and thus it was used in reference to both in Old-English, in which moreover *that* primarily prevailed as a relative pronoun: She *whiche* salle bere a chylde (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 67.). A preest . . *which* was so pleasant (CHAUCER 16482. Tyrwh.). It was commonly accompanied by the article *the*, perhaps occasioned by the Old-French liquels: That lond . . *the whiche* is the same lond &c. (MAUNDEV. p. 33.). The lond of Judee in *the whiche* is Jerusalem (p. 8.). Fro the sentence of this tretys lite After *the which* this litil tale I write (CHAUCER 15371.); so too in modern times: Of God *the whych* is permanent (SKELTON I. 199.). I could point a way, *the which* pursuing You shall . . give the realm much worthy cause to thank you (ROWE). This is your brothers impudent doctrine; for *the which* I have banished him &c. (MACKLIN). 'Twas a foolish quest *The which* to gain and keep, he sacrificed all rest (L. BYRON). This mode of expression is, on the whole, obsolete.

Even with a particle *that* after it, which was also frequently given in addition to other relatives and conjunctions in Old-English, *which* came in: A daughter *which that* called was Sophie (CHAUCER II. p. 323. Wright). Thy frend, *which that* thou hast lorn (p. 325.); this even late: Theis yatis . . *which that* ye beholde (SKELTON I. 384.). The more particular discussion of this particle, which, in the dependent sentence, often appears superfluous, belongs to syntax.

Which is at present referred almost exclusively to things and irrational beings; to persons only so far as they, like children, may also be denoted by the neuter *it*. In the language of the Bible, as in the Lords prayer (Our father *which* art in Heaven), in Shakspeare and here and there afterwards the reference to persons takes place. In adjective conjunction with a repeated substantive, we find, however, no scruple: This man, *which* man, *which* very man &c. (SMART). Such repetition of a preceding substantive is familiar to Old-English: In Ebron ben alle the *sepultures . . the whiche sepultures* the Sarazines kepen fulle curiously (MAUNDEV. p. 66.). Upon certain *points* and cas: Amonges *the which points* &c. (CHAUCER 2973. Tyrwh.). It also takes place in Modern-English where the name of a kind takes the place of a proper name: She took the opportunity of the coach *which* was going to Bath; for *which place* she set out &c. (FIELDING); and so forth. As a neuter it is also referred to preceding sentences or limbs of sentences: The man was said to be *innocent, which* he was not (WEBST.). We are bound to obey all the Divine commands, *which*

we cannot do without Divine aid (ID.). In such case a substantive, comprehending the contents of a preceding sentence or limb of a sentence as the subject of the reference, is also frequently given to the relative: Douglas was then ordained to be put into the abbey of Lindores, *to which sentence* he submitted calmly (W. SCOTT).

That from the earliest times has been, as a relative pronoun, referred to persons as well as things. Old-English: He *that* wil pupplische ony thing (MAUNDEV. p. 2.). Seynt Elyne, *that* was modre to Constantyn (p. 12.). Thise werkmen *That* werchen and waken (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 361.). For the life *that* thay leynd (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 30.). Modern-English: Are ye not he, *that* frights the maidens of the villagery (SHAKSP. Mids. N. Dr.). Wake, wake! all ye *that* sleep! (LONGFELLOW). The songs and fables *that* are come from father to son (ADDISON).

Since *that* is originally a neuter, is might be also employed substantively for what. Old-English: po he hadde *pat* he wolde (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 166.). I wille not tyne *that* I have wrought (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 72.). Tak thou thi part, and *that* men wil the gyven (CHAUCER 7113.). Modern-English: Stand, Sir, and throw us *that* you have about you (SHAKSP. Two Gentlem. &c.). Do *that* is righteous, (SMART). This usage is obsolete.

The particle *that* is also found redundantly added to this pronoun. Old-English: Fro the lond of Galilee, of *that that* I have spoke (MAUNDEV. p. 122.). Thus perhaps is also explained the turn of Shakspeare: *That that* I did, I was set on to do't by Sir Toby (Tw. Night).

Who, although of substantive nature, is chiefly used in Modern-English as a relative pronoun in relation to substantives or substantive pronouns. It is natural that this masculine and feminine pronoun, originally referred to persons, with its cases, remains, as a relative, restricted to persons and personified objects alone. But that the genitive whose is referred both to persons and things is no less justified, the Anglosaxon *hwas* belonging to all three genders: *Harold, who* had succeeded Edward the Confessor (W. SCOTT). *Many gallant knights, who* were not his subjects (ID.). *He who* escapes from death (FIELDING). — *Plenty who* was his first counsellor (ADDISON). — *Thy brown groves whose* shadow the dismissed bachelor loves (SHAKSP. Temp.).

Where the masculine and feminine *who*, *whom* are referred to collectives, the reference to persons, which the collective name includes in itself, forms the standard, whereas, in another regard, another relative may also come in: The *multitude, who* are more attracted by the external . . sources of interest (BULWER).

Who is seldom employed as a relative in Old-English: This clerk, *whos* rethorique swete Enlumynd al Ytail of philosophie (CHAUCER 7908.). More frequent is the *who* used substantively: *Who* hath no wyf, he is no cokewold (CHAUCER 3154.); where the following he does not quite degrade the *who* to a correlative; this emphatic, repeating *he* is certainly rarely wanting. The particle *that* is also annexed to the *who*: *Who that* janglis any more He must blaw my blak hoille bore (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 8.). A remnant of this substan-

tive who is the, as who would say, still is use, French comme qui dirait. Compare Old-English: The name as yet of her Amonges the people, *as who sayth*, halowed is (CHAUCER Troil. and Cr. III. 268.), and often.

But in Old-English the adverb *so* is more common with the substantive who: whoso, also whose, quicunque, whereby the generalization of the notion is indicated, corresponding to the Anglosaxon *sva hva svâ*, to which a neuter what so, Anglosaxon *sva hvât svâ*, quodcunque, stood opposed, in which Old-English cast off the preceding *sva*, as the correlative of the succeeding *hva*, *hvat*. To this was added *sva hvylc svâ* (whichso), quicunque: *Who so* dothe, put them in hold (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 67.). *Who so* wole my jagement withseie (CHAUCER 807.). Let him say to me *What so* him list (6872.) &c. Modern-English has *whosoever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever*; *whoever*, *whatever*, *whichever*, which are employed analogously to the who, what, which. The forms with a simple *so* are now rarer.

What stands in the first instance as a substantive pronoun: This is *what* I wanted (MURRAY), Do *what* you will (WEBST.). All the time that he had appeared so indifferent to *what* was going on (DICKENS). Yet it also stands adjectively, like the interrogative *what*, if the substantive of the principal sentence has been attracted into the dependent sentence: The entertainer provides *what fare* he pleases (FIELDING).

Where it is used alone with reference to a preceding substantive, it regularly corresponds not to the *which*, but at the same time takes the place of a demonstrative correlative: All fevers, except *what* are called nervous (MURRAY), for which *those which* might stand. To this substitution it is adapted by its primitive substantive nature. Solitary interchanges of *what* with *that* or *which* certainly occur. The details belong to syntax. Old-English also often adds the particle *that* to the *what*: Every man crieth and clatereth *what that* him liketh (CHAUCER II. p. 332. Wright).

E. The Indefinite Pronoun.

The class of indefinite pronouns, whose notional limitation it is hard to define, comprises words which are employed partly adjectively, partly substantively, but mostly in both modes. They denote objects and qualities in the most general and indefinite manner, mostly according to quantity, which, however appears neither as a definite unity or multiplicity, nor as a totality measured by a fixed numerical magnitude. So far as they refer to number generally they are also called indeterminate numerals. They are also partly of negative nature, with the meaning of the sublation of a determination of quantity, as; none, neither, nought. By their origin they belong primarily to the Anglosaxon, a few are taken from the Old-French. They are partly simple, partly compound. Some belong originally to other classes of nouns, as one, divers, several &c., and are weakened in their meaning. As for their declination, one, other, either and neither, and even others, may assume the *s* of the geni-

tive: one and other are also capable of forming the plurals ones, others.

1. *one*, Anglosaxon *ân*, properly the numeral, is used substantively; its use as an indeterminate pronoun is of great extent only in Modern-English. Anglosaxon certainly weakened *ân* down to *aliquis*, *quidam*, but more in the sense of the present article, and used *ân* — *ân* substantively in the meaning of *unus* — *alter*. Old-English likewise often opposed that *oon* and that *othur* to each other. Compare CHAUCER 1015. *Unus quisque, unus ex multis* was in Anglosaxon mostly denoted by *man* (home). The Plural ones, as in: And voices of the loved *ones* gone before (BRYANT) is wanting in Anglosaxon; but a plural is found in the Old-English: *Herkneth, felaws, we thre ben al oones* (CHAUCER 14111.); but on the other hand there stands: *Bothe in oon armes* (CHAUCER 1014.); where Old-French would have put *unes armes*.
2. *none*, *no*, Anglosaxon *nân*, *næn* = *ne ân*, *non unus*, Old-English *non*, *none*, *no*, substantively and adjectively even in Anglosaxon as well as in English, is the same in the plural as in the singular: *None* there, said he, are welcome (WALPOLE). At present *none* stands substantively or adjectively without a substantive after it: *None* but the brave deserves the fair (DRYDEN). *None* of their productions are extant (BLAIR); also *none other*: Achieving what *none other* can (LONGFELLOW). Other hope had she *none* (LONGFELLOW). And save his good broad-sword, he weapon had *none* (W. SCOTT). On the other hand *no* stands attributively with a substantive after it: She had *no* bonnet on her head (DICKENS). Old-English also put *non*, *none* attributively before words beginning with a vowel or an *h*, else commonly *no*: *Sche dothe non harm to no man* (MAUNDEV. p. 23.). They have *non* houses (p. 63.). I am *non* other than thou seest now (p. 25.); yet also *none* so foule synfulle men (p. 62.). *None* erthly thing (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 66.). *None* excusing (p. 78.); so even in Skelton: *None* excesse; *none* other shyfte; but *no* faute (I. 272.).
No one is pleonastic, in which one appears twice, unless we would take *no* for the Anglosaxon *nâ*, *nô*, *nunquam*. Of the compounds *nobody*, *nothing*, the latter is the elder: I herd *no thing*, lord, but goode (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 69.). What is better than a good woman? *No thing* (CHAUCER II. p. 336. Wright). For body the Old-English frequently had *wight* and *persone*: Ther is *no wight* that hath sovereign bounté, save God alone (CHAUCER II. p. 333.). Bywreye nought youre conseil to *no persone* (IB. p. 338.). *Wight* is the Anglosaxon *viht* *f*, *creatura*, and is also found in the neuter nought (*nâviht*). Body, denoting the person, occurs moreover often in another union, as my body. Compare the Old-French *mon cors*.
3. *aught*, *ought* and *naught*, *nought*, Anglosaxon *â-viht*, *âht*, *âht* and *nâ-viht*, *nâught*, *nâht*, Old-English *aught*, *auht*, *oght*, *ought* and *naught*, *noght* &c., which we are now advised to spell *aught* and *nought* (to distinguish them from the verbal form *ought*), have been preserved down to the most modern times, and also take a (neuter) adjective after them: But should *ought impious* or

impure Take friendships name, reject and shun it (T. H. BAYLY). *Naught* else have we to give (LONGFELLOW), like something, nothing: Our ancestors hand achieved *nothing considerable* by land against foreign enemies (MACAULAY).

4. *some*, Anglosaxon *sum*, *aliquis*, *quidam*, Old-English *sum*, *som*, is used adjectively and substantively, although the latter only in the plural, whereas in the singular the prose is denoted by *some* one &c.: *Some one* comes! (LONGFELLOW). In the Anglosaxon on the other hand the singular was also used, especially in the reduplication *sum — sum* for *alius — alius*, *alius — alter*. Moreover it remains unchanged in the singular and plural: *some* bread; *some* people; *some* persons (WEBST.). *Some* other give me thanks (SHAKSPEARE Com. of Err. 4, 3.). *Some* slight advantages (MACAULAY). *Some* of these moves were hazardous (ID.). *Some* thought that Dunkirk, *some* that Ypres was his object (ID.). The Old-English discriminates, as especially *Piers Ploughman*, the plural *somme* from the singular *som*. — *Some* is also united with cardinal numbers, in order to denote the number as inexact, like the Latin *aliqui*: „Have you long sojourn'd there?“ *Some sixteen* months (SHAKSP. Two Gentlem. &c.). Is he within *some ten* or *twenty* leagues Or *fifty*? (WALPOLE). *Some five* hours hence . . we may meet &c. (J. HUGHES). So even the Anglosaxon *sume* *tên* *geâr*, circiter decem annos. — Familiar combinations of *some* are *some one* (see above), *somebody*, *something*, and in the latter sense also *somewhat*. *Som* thing is also familiar to the Old-English (see 2.); and *som* what also occurs: Ther nys no creature so good, that him ne wantith *som what* of the perfeccioun of God (CHAUCER II. p. 333.). The Modern-English somewhat still contains the *hva*, *hvât*, *aliquis*, *aliquid*, appearing in Anglosaxon as an indeterminate pronoun, which in Old-English, occurs only in the neuter: But wite ye *what*? (CHAUCER 10305.). Ne elles *what* = nor any thing else (ID. House of Fame 3, 651.); Anglosaxon elles *hvât*. The *what* = partly, used now as well as in Old-English adverbially is the accusative of this neuter.
5. *enough*, *enow*, Anglosaxon *genôh*, *adject.* and *adverb.* Old-English *ynough*, *ynow*, *enow* &c., dialectically frequently *enow*, is used adjectively and substantively as well as adverbially. The collateral form *enow*, contrary to the nature of the thing and the older linguistic usage, has, strange to say, passed among grammarians for the plural of *enough*, and authors have frequently conformed to this arbitrary distinction. Still stranger is the assumption that *enow* does not stand after a substantive: Have I not cares *enow*, and pangs *enow* (L. BYRON). We' re *enough* already (ID.). *Enough* of danger (W. SCOTT). *Enough*, alas! in humble homes remain, To meditate 'gainst friends the secret blow (L. BYRON).
6. *few*, Anglosaxon *feáve*, Plural of *feá*, *paucus*, Old-English *fewe*. The article often placed before the *few* is explained like the *a* standing before cardinal numbers (see p. 278.). His wants were *few* (L. BYRON). There are but *few* that can do that (GOLDSMITH). He . . was sent thence to Huy, where he passed a *few*

days in luxurious repose (MACAULAY). Compare the Old-English: A *fewe* of youre frendes (CHAUCER II. p. 340.). Dialectically *few* is often treated as a singular: a *few* broth, a *few* pottage &c.; else it is hardly referred to the singular, as perhaps in: While yet our race was *few* (BRYANT).

The Old-English *fele*, Anglosaxon *fēla*, indecl., multus, opposed to *fewe* (By dayes *fele* [CHAUCER 8793.]. Of *fele* colours [PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 222.]), is replaced by *many*: *Few*, *few* shall part where *many* meet (CAMPBELL).

7. *any* = ullus, Anglosaxon *ænig*, *ænig*, from *ân*, Old-English *ony*, *any*, *eny*, is, as in Anglosaxon, an adjective, but is sometimes used substantively: Who is here so vile . . ? If *any*, speak (SHAKSP. J. C.). It is a like both in the singular and the plural: Hath Page *any* brains! hath he *any* eyes? hath he *any* thinking? (SHAKSP. M. Wives). Such a collection . . as you will scarcely find in *any* ten cabinets in Europe (LADY MONTAGUE). Old-English has preserved many traces of a plural form: *Anye* rentes: *anye* riche frendes (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 305.). The person is readily denoted by *any one* (I did not speak *any one* that day (LONGFELLOW) and *anybody*; Old-English *any wight* (CHAUCER II. p. 338.); *eny persone* (IB.); whereas the notion of a thing is expressed by *any thing*.
8. *many*, Anglosaxon *maneg*, *moneg*, multus, Old-English *many*, *mony*, used substantively of persons in the plural, as in Anglosaxon. In the singular it assumes *a* before substantives: *many a flower*, *many a day* &c.; referred to persons also *a one*: *many a one* (M'. CULLOCH p. 138.); compare *many an oon* (JACK JUGL. p. 9.). *Many one* in the 3, 2. Psalm is construed collectively with the plural of the verb. This *many one* was also referred to substantives of things: Tel us a tale, for thou canst *many oon* (CHAUCER 13734.). Ensamples *many oon* (13850.), if it followed the substantive. The substantive *a many*, now commonly a great *many*, is the Anglosaxon substantive *menigēo*, *menigo*. The plural stands adjectively and substantively: *many long cruel*, and *bloody wars* (W. SCOTT). *Few shall part where many meet* (CAMPBELL). In Old-English the *s* of the plural (Anglosaxon *manege*) still often comes out: *Manye* bokes (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 199.). So *manye* maistres (p. 321.). Ther seighen it *manye* (p. 337.); although also: *many longe yeres* (p. 312.). A genitive is also formed therefrom: That book in *many's* eyes does share the glory, That in gold clasps locks in thy golden story (SHAKSP. Rom. and Jul.). The opinion according to which *many* is taken to be the plural of much and more passes as the comparative of *many*, is devoid of etymological foundation.
9. *each*, every single one of a total number, Anglosaxon *ælc* (= *â-lic*), *quisque*, *unusquisque*, Old-English *ilk*, *eche*, *ich*, stands both connected and disconnected, and is by its nature singular. It always has a distributive relation to a preceding or succeeding substantive or pronoun, where it does not attributively precede its substantive: Only eight thousand copies were printed, much less

than one to *each* parish in the kingdom (MACAULAY). And isles and whirlpools in the stream appear *Each* after *each* (BRYANT). Come, good people, all and *each* (LONGFELLOW). Three different nations, who were enemies to *each other* (W. SCOTT). Of persons and things we still use *each one*: There are two angels, that attend unseen *Each one* of us (LONGFELLOW). The pages of thy book I read, And as I closed *each one*, My heart, responding, ever said "Servant of God! well done!" (ID.). In Old-English *echoon*, *ichon*, *ilkon*, *ilkan*, *ilka* (= *ilk a*) is very common; *ilkan* is still in use in Yorkshire and Northumberland, *elcone* in Cumberland. The fuller forms stand absolutely before persons or after a substantive of a thing, the weakened ones *ich a*, *ilk a* before substantives: *each a persone* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 298.); *ilk a stede* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 68.).

10. *every*, a compound of *each*, which is generalized in an indeterminate manner by *ever*, unknown to Anglosaxon (= *æfre*, *æfer* — *ælc*), Old-English *everilk*, *everich*, is now mostly used attributively: *Every* Colonel, *every* Lieutenant Colonel, was killed or severely wounded (MACAULAY). Rarely, and that mostly in the legal style, it stands disconnectedly, with *of* after it: all and *every* of them; *every* of the clauses. In Old-English, where it is referred to one of many, as also of two, which is still the case at present, it also stands absolutely of persons: That *every* schuld an hundred knightes bryng (CHAUCER 2098.). *Everich* in otheres hond his trouthe laith (6986.). The person is commonly periphrased by *every one*, *every body*, the neuter notion by *every thing*; to Old-English *everich on*, *everychone*, *every wight*, *every thing* are familiar. Modern-English has also the union *every each* = *every other*, *alternate* (HALLIWELL s. v.).
11. *either*, *each of two*, and *one of two*, even *every*, the second of which meanings, contrary to the very usage of the language itself, is maintained in modern times as the sole correct one, Anglosaxon *ægðer* = *æghvæðer*, that is, *â-ge-hvæðer*, alongside of *âhvæðer*, *uterque* and *alteruter*, *unusquisque*, Old-English *either*, *aither*, *ather* (Old-Scottish. North-English), stands attributively and disconnectedly. With the meaning *uterque*, which is very common in Old-English, it not rarely stands in Modern-English also: The king of Israel and Jehosaphat sat *either* of them on his throne (2 CHRON. 18, 9.). *Either* of these distinguished officers (Catinat and Boufflers) would have been a successor worthy of Luxemburg (MACAULAY). On *either* side of him there shot up . . . houses (DICKENS). Old-English: Enemyes and frendes Love his *eyther* oother (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 212.). *Either* is otheres joie (p. 343.). Of course the meanings *uterque* and *alteruter* often border on each other, the latter whereof needs no exemplification. The Old-English genitive in *s* (*es*) is also found in Modern-English: They are both in *eithers* powers (SHAKSP. Temp.); compare the Old-English: Till *eitheres* (*utriusque*) wille wexeth keene (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 267.). The relation to several, with the meaning of *each* (of any multitude) instances of which are given in Wagner's Grammar, published by Herrig p. 293., may be justified out of the Anglosaxon.

12. *neither*, Anglosaxon *nâhvæðer*, *nâðer*, neuter, Old-English *neither*, *nather* &c., is, analogously to *either*, employed connectedly and disconnectedly: On *neither* side was there a wish to bring the question of right to issue (MACAULAY). They're both of nature mild . . . *Neither* has any thing he calls his own (OTWAY).

13. *other*, alius and alter, Anglosaxon *ôðer*, alius, alter and secundus, Old-norse *annar*, Gothic *anþar*, Old-Highdutch *andar*, Old-English *other*, alongside whereof *andyr*, *ender*, *endir* (HALLIWELL s. v.), stands both connectedly and disconnectedly, may have the articles *a* (*an*) and *the* before it, and, when used substantively, assumes the *s* of the genitive and of the plural: Some are happy while *others* are miserable (MURRAY). Old-English inflects it, but has the *e* in the plural a long time: Either is *otheres* joie (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 343.). *Ac per bep to fore alle opere pre* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 2.). *Be the Cristene or othere* (MAUNDEV. p. 74.). The plural subsequently stands without *s*: When *other* are glad Than is he sad (SKELTON l. 79.). Some *other* give me thanks (SHAKSP. Com. of Err. 4, 3); thus in the union some — other some (ACT. XVII. 18). Compare DIALECT. OF CRAVEN s. v. Where one of two is opposed to the other in reciprocal activity, we find one another, where one of two or several is denoted, each other has its place: The parson and the stranger shook one another very lovingly by the hand (FIELDING). The reader may perhaps wonder, that so fond a pair should . . . never converse with one another (ID.). Two blackbirds answered each other from opposite sides (GOLD-SMITH). Three different nations, who were enemies to each other (W. SCOTT). The meaning of the other as a second of the same sort still has place: We need another Hildebrand (LONGFELLOW). Here was a Caesar; When comes such another? (SHAKSP. Jul. Caes.) Old-English often *swiche* another; *syke* another (SKELTON l. 260.). Thus also the next in succession is determined as a second: Four happy days bring in Another moon (SHAKSP. Mids. N. Dr.). You have been deeply wrong'd, and now shall be Nobly avenged before another night (L. BYRON); and on the other hand the recently passed is denoted by other: the other day, compare the French *l'autre jour*. In the connection other than it corresponds to the French *autre que*, different from.

14. *such*, Anglosaxon *svylc*, talis, Old-English *swich*, *swylk*, *suilk*, *selk*, *slik* &c., also for *idem*, (see p. 294.), stands attributively, predicatively and substantively, and has, as an adjective, also *a* after it: *Such* was the general &c. (MACAULAY). *Such* curiosity William could not endure (ID.). Cutts was the only man who appeared to consider *such* an expedition as a party of pleasure (ID.). The plural is the same as the singular; Old-English has the plural in *e*: *Selke* (DAME SIRIZ p. 5.). They are not *swylke* als they seme (Ms. in HALLIWELL s. v.). By alle *swiche* preestes (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 220.). *Swiche* wise wordes (p. 19.). The connection *such* a one is frequent, in Modern-English often equivalent to the French *un tel*, *tel et tel*, whereby we indicate the person whose more particular description we cannot or will not

state, as *such a* is united with substantives in like manner: . . that on *such a* day the assembly shall be at their house, in honour of the feast of the count or countess *such a one* (LADY MONTAGUE). Compare the Old-English: *Such an on* as is of gode maneres (MAUNDEV. p. 287.).

15. *all*, Anglosaxon *eall*, *eal*, *al*, *omnia*, *totus*, Old-English *al*, *all*, is unchangeable in Modern-English: *All* Europe was looking anxiously towards the Low Countries (MACAULAY). *All* parties concurred in the illusion (MURRAY). *All* was dark and gloomy (DICKENS). Miss Arabella Wilmot was allowed by *all*, except my two daughters, to be completely pretty (GOLDSMITH); and may even have the definite article as well as demonstrative pronouns after it: *All* the time that he had appeared so indifferent &c. (DICKENS). The moon . . shed her light on *all* the objects around (ID.). Glancing at *all* these things &c. (ID.). This was also the case in Old-English as well as in Anglosaxon: *Alle* the dayes of pore men be *wikke* (CHAUCER 4538.). Anglosaxon: *Ealle* *pâ ping* (GEN. 1, 31.). The Old-English long declined: singular *al*, *all*, plural nom. acc. dat. *alle*, gen. *alre*, *aller* (*alder*): To fore *alle* opere pre (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 2.). *pat* is *aller* mon worst (p. 15.). Oure *aller* fader (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 342.). Your *aller* heed (head) (p. 424.). Hence also the forms *alderliefest*, *alderlast* &c. see p. 185. The *e* of the plural is certainly often cast off.
16. *else* is often cited in English dictionaries as a pronoun with the meaning *other*, *one besides*. It is in fact originally the genitive of the Anglosaxon *el*, *ele*, *alius*, which, however, mostly occurs in compounds, and whose genitive *elles* stands as an adverb (*aliter*); Old-English: *elles*, *ells*, *els* (even in Skelton). It is therefore to be taken adverbially: *Bastards and else* (SHAKSP. K. J. 2, 1.). As I have ever shared your kindness in all things *else* (L. BYRON). In Old-English we frequently find *elles* what, nought *elles*, as in Anglosaxon *elles hvät*, *nâviht elles*, in which the genitive still betrays itself as such. Modern-English: *Naught else* have we to give (LONGFELLOW).
17. *sundry*, with the meaning of an indefinite multitude, Anglosaxon *synderig*, singularis, in the plural *singuli*, Old-English *sondry*, has in the plural *several*, Old-French *several* = *séparé*, also used for *divers*, *plusieurs*, Old-English *several*, *divers*, Old-French the same, Old-English *diverse*, and *different*, Old-French, Old-English the same, synonymous adjectives, in which the notion of variety has been weakened down to that of separation.*) The Old-English had the corresponding *ser*, *seyre*, which is still in use in the North of England for *several*, many: *Fioures . . of seyre colours* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 7.). Of *many* beestes *sere* present (p. 47.). *Romaunces*, many and *sere* (Ms. in HALLIWELL s. v.). It seems

*) The notion of separation as that of the physical, nearest to the sensuous, existing in space and time is the prius, and the notion of variety as the metaphysical is the posterius.

to have arisen by contraction out of the Old-French participle *sevre* (compare the substantive *sevree* = separation). — Several is also used substantively of persons: I met *several* on the road, to whom I cried out for assistance; but they disregarded my entreaties (GOLDSMITH). It is also joined in the singular with every, with the meaning *singulus*: He gives To *every several* man seventy five drachmas (SHAKSP. J. C.).

18. *certain*, in the sense of the Latin *certus* for *quidam*, by which the existence of the object alone is asserted, but its more particular determination not stated or, rather, disregarded, passed early from the Old-French into the English: I am invited, Sir, to *certain* merchants (SHAKSP. Com. of Err.). Compare the Old-English: Or *paide som certegn* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 268.). In Old-English it was even used substantively as a neuter (*aliquid*): Beseching him to lene him *a certain* of gold (CHAUCER 16492. Tyrwh.).

5. The Article.

The name **article** is given to the *the*, weakened from the Anglo-saxon demonstrative pronoun *se* (pē), *seó* (peó), *pāt*, and to the *an*, *a*, likewise weakened from the Anglosaxon numeral *án*. They primarily serve to single out for the imagination one single object or several objects from the totality of objects of the same name. The former, as the definite article, separates them from their total sphere, as sensuous, or already known and present in intuition; the second, the indefinite article, presents one object to the imagination, but which may be any one from the total sphere of those bearing the same name, without distinction. The transfer of both articles to the total sphere of objects bearing the same name has to be more particularly discussed in the Syntax. Both are to be regarded as words unaccented, or, rather proclitic in speech.

- a) The definite article *the* proceeds from the Anglosaxon collateral form of *se*, the *pē*. It has abandoned the forms for the different genders, numbers and cases, and takes the case-prepositions *of* and *to* before it, whereby the syntactic relation of its substantive is denoted.

Old-English still has distinct traces of the *se*, *seó*, *pāt*, used as an article even in Anglosaxon: *pe* emperoures of Rome *pat* fozte and wonne Engeland, and *pat* lond nome (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 3.) (Anglosaxon *pāt* land, acc. n.). *pen* toun nome (II. 409.). (Anglosaxon *pone tūn*, acc. m.). Aze *pen* op (p. 443.). *pen* castel nome (p. 451.). Asayle *pen* false kyng (p. 453.). *Atten* ende = at pen ende (409 and often) (Anglos. *āt pam ende*, dat. m.).

The ancient language early employed the neuter *that* for all genders: From *pat* on *se* to *pat* oper (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 98.) (*se*, Anglosaxon *sæ*, *mare*, is m. and f.). On *that* other side of the strete (MAUNDEV. p. 90.) (Anglosaxon *sīde*, f.). And eek *that* lusty sesoun of *that* May Made every wight to ben in such pleasure &c. (CHAUCER 2486.).

The *t* before other, apparently arising from the article *the*,

is remarkable, which in Modern-English is often separated from it by an apostrophe: And when he put a hand but in The one, or *t'other* magazine (BUTLER). Your ladyship should except, says *t'other* (GOLDSMITH). I saw *t'other* day the gala for count Altheim (LADY MONTAGUE). We might regard it as equivalent to the *th*, which even in Old-English appears before vowels instead of the article: Thanne is *thother* half durk and *thother* is al list (WRIGHT Pop. Treatis. p. 134.). Yet in Old-English before this *tother*, beside which also a *tone*, *tane* (to, ta) stands, we commonly find the article itself, which we could hardly take to be put twice: *The tone* of us schall dye (PERCY Rel. p. 7. II.). *Athe tother* syde (p. 4. I.). On *the ta* part or on *the tothyr* (Treaty of 1384. in LINDSAY ed. Chalmers s. v. ta). And *the tother* hond he lifteth (MAUNDEV. p. 9.). *The tother* 2 festes (p. 232.). *The tothere* ne ben not so grete (p. 52.). A fole *the tone*, and a fole *the tother* (SKELTON l. 260.). *The tone* agayng *the tother* (l. 313.). Naught justifies us in believing this *t* inserted from phonetic reasons. I should rather explain it out of the *t* of the *that* used as an article, which in Old-English so frequently stood before one and other: And rerde tuo nonneryes, *Worwel pat one* was, And Ambresbury *pet oper* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 291.). There is a gret weye from *that on* to *that othere* (MAUNDEV. p. 63.). Compare also the instances cited above. Thus there would here be the same separation of the consonant of a preceding word, which we elsewhere occasionally meet with in Old-English, for instance, in *atte nale* for *atten ale* and the like. In modern times this origin has been forgotten and the *t* regarded as an article. *Tone* and *tother* are still popular in the North of England and South of Scotland.

The instrumental of *pē*, *pŷ*, *pē*, *m*. and *n*., having become unrecognizable, has been preserved in the form *the*, as in Anglo-saxon, before the comparative in the meaning of *eo* (*eo-eo* instead of *quo-eo*): So much *the rather* then, celestial light, Shine inward (MILTON). *The more* I hate, *the more* he follows me (SHAKSP. Mids. N. Dr.). I love not Man *the less*, but Nature more (L. BYRON). Even Old-English readily uses it in reduplication: *pe lenger*, *pe more* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 110.).

The *e* of the article in poetry, as well as in rapid speech generally, often suffers syncope, not only before vowels, but even before consonants, as in Old-English: My Lord, *th'expected* guests are just arriv'd? (OTWAY). When, or how, shall I prevent or stop *th'approaching* danger (CONGREVE). *Th'industrious* bees neglect their golden store (POPE). In *th'olden* time Some sacrifices ask'd a single victim (L. BYRON). — Oh! that kind dagger . . drench'd in my blood to *th'hilt* (OTWAY). I *th'very* minute when her virtue nods (ID.). Who merit, ought indeed to rise i'*th'*world (ID.).

Old-English poetry often uses the more emphatic *this*, where the article would be quite sufficient; compare, for instance Chaucer: Duk Theseus . . *This* duk (1696. 1706.). *This* worthy duk (1744.). *This* Theseus, *this* duk, *this* worthy knight . . He festeth

hem (2192.). It stands particularly readily before proper names: *This* Arcite and *this* Palamon ben mette (1638.), where the ancient language even employed the unaccented article: At last *the* Douglas and *the* Persè met (PERCY Rel. p. 3. II.).

- b) The indefinite article *an*, *a*, Anglosaxon *ân*, unus, Old-English *an*, *on*, *a*, *o* &c. existing only in the singular, according to the precepts of grammarians, stands, in its abbreviated form *a*, before all words beginning with a consonant sound. Among these are of course also reckoned those beginning with the semiconsonants *w* and *y*, as well as accented syllables beginning with an *h* which is not mute, and words beginning with *u*, *eu*, *ew*, an aspirate sounding before these words, as well as one and once, since to these a labial (*w*) is prefixed: a man, a tree, a heathen, a unit, such a one, a oneness &c. The fuller form *an* stands before all vowels (which are not heard with an initial consonant), before words beginning with a mute *h*, as well as before words beginning with an aspirated *h*, when the syllable beginning with *h* is followed by the accented syllable: an inn, an umpire, an hour, an heir, an harangue, an historical subject &c.

Usage is however not quite in harmony with this precept, since we often find *an* used even before aspirated vowels and before an aspirate *h* in the accented syllable: *An* useless waste of life (MACAULAY). *An* eunuch (CONGREVE). *An* unanimous resolution (GOLDSMITH). I'd rather be *an* unit of *an* united and imperial "Ten" (L. BYRON); *an* hero &c.

Old-English early adopted the custom of retaining, *an*, *on* before vowels and *h*, and of setting, on the other hand, *a*, *o* before other consonants, and that even where not the unaccented article, but the numeral came in. Robert of Gloucester often has *an* before consonants: So pat per com of *an* wode . . . *an* six pousend of Brutons (l. 211.); and thus too subsequent writers, yet compare: There scholde be but *o* masse sayd at *on* awtier, upon *o* day (MAUNDEV. p. 19.). Hyre lord and sche be of *a* blode. — Three persones in *a* Godhede (Ms. in HALLIWELL s. v.).

From this assimilation of the proper numeral to the article, with regard to form, is to be explained the still frequent use of the article, where the numeral *one*, especially with the meaning *one* and the same, seems to be required: For *a* day or two I've lodg'd her privately (OTWAY). Halloo, said my uncle, falling back *a* step or two (DICKENS); and this is common in similar combinations. Compare: With *a* charme or twayne (SKELTON l. 57.). We are both of *an* age (FIELDING). Then the poor woman would sometimes tell the 'Squire, that she thought him and Olivia extremely of *a* size (GOLDSMITH).

In union with other *an* is now treated as the ingredient of a compound: In less than *another* year we had *another* daughter (GOLDSMITH).

The indefinite article is capable of no change of form; *of* and *to*, serving as substitutes for the case-inflection, come before it: They made *a* bet of *a* new hat (DICKENS). These attentions . . . were directed to *a* young lady (ID.).

B) The Verb.

The verb, or time-word, is that part of speech which predicates of a subject an activity falling in the sphere of time. But every phenomenal mode of the subject, which is predicated of it, is to be regarded as an activity of the subject, whether spoken of as its action, its passion or its condition, since it belongs to the successive moments of time, therefore can only be apprehended as a movement and a becoming. The division and separation of the sphere of time into spaces of time from the most general points of view produces the tenses, or time forms, of the verb.

Sorts of the Verb, and their interchange.

With reference to their grammatical relation inside of speech, verbs are divided into various sorts, a decision which is partly governed by the relation to an object, partly by that to the subject of the sentence.

- a) With regard to the relation to objective determinations of the sentences, verbs are divided into transitive verbs, denoting an activity directed outwards, and intransitive verbs, expressing an activity concluded within itself.
- 1) Transitive verbs are accordingly those verbs which denote an activity directed to an object as its goal, whether the object is produced by the activity itself or is determined thereby as a being existing independently.

Transitive verbs are distinguished into those which are such in the narrower and those which are such in the wider sense. The former are those whose object undergoes the effect of the activity immediately, and therefore stands in the accusative with the active of the verb: Hamilton murdered *the old man* in cold blood (MACAULAY). The latter are those whose activity requires an object participating mediately, which therefore stands to the verb in the relation of another case (the genitive or dative): If solitude succeed *to grief*, Release from pain is slight relief (BYRON).

English frequently effaces the distinction of both sorts, especially since the dative and the accusative, as in Lowdutch, are frequently not distinguished from each other in form, and the original reference of the verb to its object vanishes from the consciousness of the language.

The transitive verb becomes reflective, if it has its subject for its object; it then receives a personal pronoun for its object: *He hid himself* (WEBST.). Here will *we rest us* (LONGFELLOW). *They defended themselves* against the Saxons (W. SCOTT). Reflective verbs, in the narrower sense, which can have only a personal pronoun for their object, are now hardly known to Modern-English. Old-English had a multitude of impersonal reflective verbal forms, whereof methinks, meseems are obsolete remains, along with which it irks me, it lists him, and the like remain in use. Old-

English: Et this whan *the hungreth* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 276.). *Methursteth yit* (p. 391.). That I makede man *It me forthynketh*, = *poenitet me* (p. 167.). Lene hem whan *hem nedeth* (p. 185.). More rare even in Old-English are personal verbs of feeling or of affection in the reflective construction: I *drede me* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 164.). I *repent me* (SKELTON I. 304.); the latter whereof is still in use in Modern-English: She will *repent her* of all past offences (FIELDING).

The notion of the activity appears as **reciprocal**, when mutuality of an activity, as the action of a subject upon an object and reaction of this object upon that subject, is denoted. This happens in English by the junction of *one another* and *each other* to the transitive verb: If we love *one another*, Nothing, in truth, can harm us (LONGFELLOW). They . . broke their spears without doing *each other* further injury (W. SCOTT). The kings obliging themselves to assist *each other* against all the rest of the world &c. (ID.).

Transitive verbs, with the exception of the reflective ones, appear in a twofold shape: that of the **active** and that of the **passive**.

The **active** is the verbal form whereby the grammatical subject is represented as **exercising the activity**: *The assassins pulled off her clothes* (MACAULAY). The active form also belongs to intransitive verbs. The **passive** lets the grammatical subject appear as **undergoing the activity**: *They were roused from sleep by faithful servants* (MACAULAY). *The two kingdoms were divided from each other* (W. SCOTT). *As you were told before* (ID.). *He was succeeded by his son* (ID.).

The freedom in forming the passive is far greater in English than in other tongues. Passives are formed not only from transitive verbs in the narrower and wider sense, but also from verbs in themselves intransitive, which are construed in the corresponding active form by prepositions with adverbial (objective) determinations: *Starshed was soon disposed of* (W. SCOTT). *The Highlands and Islands were particularly attended to* (ID.). *Had he not been called on* to fill the station of a monarch . . he might . . have been regarded as an honest and humane prince (ID.). *An old manor-house, and an old family of this kind, are rarely to be met with* at the present day (W. IRVING).

- 2) **Intransitive verbs** are all those which denote an activity not directed to an object, and which therefore appears as concluded in itself: That evening *the great minister died* (MACAULAY). *The punishment of some of the guilty began very early* (ID.). By slow degrees *the whole truth came out* (ID.). They are also called **neuters**.

Verbs may be termed, according to their import, **frequentative** or **iterative**, **diminutive**, **inchoative** and **desiderative**. They belong to the class of transitives or of intransitives, notwithstanding such further notional determinations.

The specified **sorts** of the verb are however not distinguished from each other in such a manner as not to be capable of passing into or changing places with one another. The question whether a verb is originally transitive or intransitive in English,

is frequently not to be answered. Only by a recourse to the tongues out of which English grew can this be in many cases decided, while in others the more or less frequent or the older use of a verb as transitive or intransitive may turn the scale where forms and derivative terminations afford but little clew. No other tongue avails itself, to the same extent as the English, of the liberty of interchanging notions of activities.

An interchange of this sort is certainly known to most tongues, although not to the like extent. It rests on the one hand on the possibility that the activity which needs a completing object may also in fact be conceived by itself or abstractedly, which is ever the case when no definite object is added; but, on the other hand, the activity concluded in itself, so far as it has any result at all, or so far as it is imagined in contact with objects, may be regarded as the activity producing that result or acting immediately upon those objects. A wider limit will of course be conceded to poetry and the naive speech of common life than to the strictly measured prose. Yet even prose has possessed itself in a wider compass of these interchanges, when warranted by the living speech, and thereby has often rendered the original nature of the verb imperceptible.

Some of the demonstrable interchanges of the sorts of verbs may here be mentioned by way of example.

1. α) The **transitive active** becomes intransitive, when **no appropriate object** is given to it, although this cannot, of course, be absent from the activity: About, *seek, fire, kill!* (SHAKSP. J. C.). Instances of this sort are to be met with everywhere.
- β) The **transitive active** becomes intransitive, where the activity could have no other object than the subject itself; wherefore this is also regarded as a transition into the reflective meaning. In Highdutch verbs like *nahen*, *flüchten*, *stürzen*, *fürchten*, *münden*, and the like, which run parallel to *sich nahen*, and the like, form an analogy to this usage. In English reflective formations likewise sometimes run parallel to these intransitives, although they have been more restricted in later times: Yeomen . . . were induced to *enlist* (MACAULAY). When the troops *had retired*, the Macdonalds crept out of the caverns of Glencoe (ID.). She could not *refrain* from crying out &c. (FIELDING). I *will prove* in the end more faithful than any of them (W. SCOTT). Russell meanwhile *was preparing* for an attack (MACAULAY). Two large brooks which *unite* to form the river Tile (W. SCOTT). He *stole* away to England (MACAULAY). The warlike inhabitants . . . *gathered* fast to Surrey's standard (W. SCOTT). Mark you he *keeps* aloof from all the revels (L. BYRON). Instances of this sort are also very frequent. If they can be interchanged with the reflective construction, we must not attribute to them quite the same mode of apprehension. The identity of the objective value does not decide grammatically the identity of the apprehension. These verbs are to be conceived as such whose reference to outward independent objects is hindered by the context, and therefore must be deemed to be concluded within the subject.

Single verbs, which may be referred here, as in: *I shame To wear a heart so white* (SHAKSP. Macb.) have remained true to their origin, the Anglosaxon *scamjan*, *erubescere*, being intransitive, and not having received the common transitive meaning till later.

- γ) Different from the usage just mentioned is the employment of the transitive active as intransitive, when an activity seems imputed to the subject, whose object it rather is. A transmutation of the active into the passive being here sometimes, though by no means universally, possible, this has been conceived as a transition into the passive meaning: What a delicious fragrance springs From the deep flagon, while it *fills* (LONGFELLOW). I published some tracts . . which, as they never *sold*, I have the consolation of thinking were read only by the happy Few (GOLDSMITH). If the cakes at tea *ate short and crisp*, they were made by Olivia (ID.). A godly, thorough Reformation, Which always must be carried on, And still *be doing* never done (BUTLER). While any favourite air *is singing* (SHERIDAN). While this ballad *was reading*, Sophia seemed to mix an air of tenderness with her approbation (GOLDSMITH). While a treaty of union . . *was negotiating* (ROBERTSON). A great experiment *was making* (MACAULAY). For you I've a draught that long *has been brewing* (LONGFELLOW). The periphrastic verbal forms with the participle in *ing* have especially been thus employed from olden times. The use of these verbs is to be explained by the subject's being considered the **mediate** author of the activity of which itself is the object. Thus the transitive-active borders partly on the reflective, partly on the passive and on the factitive meaning. Compare above: it *fills* = it fills itself, it *filled*, makes itself filled.

2. α) The intransitive verb receives the character of the transitive active, if the **result** of the activity is made its object. Thus the verb is often put to a substantive of the same stem, denoting the activity in the abstract form: Ye all *live* loathsome, sneaking, servile *lives* (OTWAY). He had rather *die* a thousand *deaths* (FIELDING). To let them *die* the *death* (L. BYRON). How many old men . . sank down and *slept* their last *sleep* in the snow (MACAULAY); as happened early with intransitive and transitive verbs. Old-English: He *aschede* po pat same *asking* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 30.); po kyng *sende* ys *sonde* (156.). Suiche *domes* to *deme* (II. 562.). Yet objects of another sort than products of the activity may also be considered: In every *tear* that I do *weep* (SHAKSP. Love's L. L. 4. 3.). Groves whose rich trees *wept* odorous *gums* (MILTON). *What* he *lived* was more beautiful than what he wrote (LEWES). The realm itself . . *yawns* *dungeons* at each step for thee and me (L. BYRON). „Thou didst not say so.“ — But thou *lookedst* it (ID.). Does the prophet doubt, To whom the very stars *shine* *victory*? (ID.)

- β) or the **activity** is referred to an **object independent of it**, which it touches or upon which it mediately acts, and which is only considered as that immediately aimed at or hit by the activity: To *sit a horse* (WEBST.). Thou day! That slowly *walk'st the waters!* March — March on (L. BYRON). Thou shalt make mighty engines *swim the sea* (BRYANT). There's not a ship that *sails the ocean* (LONGFELLOW). We *... fought the powers* Sent by your emperor to raise our siege (OTWAY). *Fight the ship* as long as she can swim (MACAULAY). While thou *foughtst* and *foughtst the christian cause* (J. HUGHES); when, as in the last instances, the sort of reference to the object may be different.
- γ) or the **notion of the activity** is taken as **factitive** in its reference to an object, that is, as effecting the activity originally contained in the verb: I *have travelled my uncle Toby* ... in a chariot and four (STERNE). During twenty six hours he *rained shells and redhot bullets* on the city (MACAULAY). Even at the base of Pompey's statua, Which all the while *ran blood*, great Cæsar fell (SHAKSP. J. C.). Men, who *... have danced their babes* Upon their knees (L. BYRON). Many verbs, originally intransitive, are thus treated, as, to issue, to lean (Anglosaxon *hlinjan*), to prosper &c. Here belongs also the case in which an intransitive verb is at the same time conceived as effecting a **predicative** determination of the object: I *have walked my clothes dry* (BULWER).
- δ) Allied to the usage last mentioned is the transition of the intransitive active into the **reflective form** by the addition of a personal pronoun: Good Margaret, *run thee* to the parlour (SHAKSP. Much Ado &c.). *Hie thee* home (SMART), Anglosaxon *hycgan, studere. Fare thee* well, and think of death (J. HUGHES). *Sit thee* down (SHAKSP.). Go *flee thee* away into the land of Judah (BIBLE). They *sate them* down beside the stream (SOUTHEY). These and similar turns, still employed, chiefly in the imperative, are censured by modern grammarians. They are familiar to Old-English: This knave *goth him* up ful sturdily (CHAUCER 3434). Expressions like: Here will *we rest us* (LONGFELLOW); Old-English: Where oure Lady *rested hire* (MAUNDEV. p. 71.), are originally regular; Anglosaxon He hine *reste* (EXOD. 31, 17.), as well as the Old-English: He went him home. The Old-English: *haste thee* has been formed after the Old-French *se haster*.
- b) With regard to the subject of the sentence we distinguish **personal** and **impersonal** verbs.
- 1) **Personal verbs** are those referred to a determinate person or thing as their subject: *The revolution* had been accomplished (MACAULAY). What is *your illness?* — „*It* has no name“ (LONGFELLOW).
 - 2) We call **impersonal** those having no determinate subject. Their subject, not decidedly present in imagination, is indicated by the neuter *it*, and they stand only in the third person singular.

- a) Those verbs are impersonal in the narrowest sense, which can occur only in sentences without a subject definitely imagined. Here belong some of those which denote effects in the domain of nature, to which we ascribe no clearly conceived subject, as in: it rains, it lightens, it thunders, it hails, it snows, it freezes, it thaws, it blows &c. Old-English: Now *it schyneth*, now *it reyneth faste* (CHAUCER 1537.). They are however at the same time partly personal. Hence all verbs are in a wider sense impersonal which, although in themselves used personally, are referred to activities whose subject is unclear to the imagination, or, although demonstrable, is yet for the moment unclear or indifferent to the speaker. Here also are found verbs with a predicative completion: *It is very cold* (SHAKSP. Ham.). *How dark it grows* (LONGFELLOW). *It is growing dark* (ID.). The limit of the linguistic usage is hard to specify. There manifestly belong here sentences like: *How fares it with the holy monks of Hirschau?* (LONGFELLOW.) *Is it come to this?* (SMART.) Thus *it was* now in England (MACAULAY). Reflective verbs used impersonally, with which even the subject *it* may be wanting, and which are not at the same time referred to a logical subject in the sentence or clause, as in the Old-English *me hungreth*, *me thursteth*, are unknown to Modern-English; since expressions like *methinks*, *meseems* relate to such a subject. In sentences like *woe is me!* compare the Old-English: *Wo worth!* — *Ever worthe thaym wo!* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 270.), *woe* (Anglosaxon *vāva*, *vā*, *miseria*) is, properly, the subject.
- β) We must distinguish from impersonal sentences of the sort specified sentences, similar in form, in which the grammatical subject *it* points to a logical subject contained in the sentence or clause. The logical subject is in this case frequently an infinitive or a dependent sentence: *It is hard to go*, but harder to stay (LONGFELLOW). *It was an aged man who spoke* (ID.). *It was observed that two important classes took little or no part in the festivities* (MACAULAY). It belongs to syntax to discuss this more particularly.

The Forms of the English Verb in general.

The various relations which the verb receives inside the sentence, are expressed by its various forms, the conjugations. English is poor in simple forms of this sort, frequently availing itself of so called auxiliary verbs, to express periphrastically the syntactical relations expressed, in tongues richer in forms, by the verbal stem and its termination. Many of these forms are at the same time susceptible of various relations, and therefore in themselves unclear, so that they only become completely intelligible in the entire context of the sentence.

The English conjugations rest upon the Anglosaxon; the influence of the Old-French upon the passive formation could hardly be pointed out, although the auxiliary verb *veorðan*, has been abandoned.

- a) As to the **sorts of the verb**, even the Anglosaxon had no longer a passive form, properly so called, as little as a form for the medium (or reflective). It possessed only the expressed active form. The Anglosaxon passive was formed by the assistance of the verbs *vēsan* and *veorðan* with the participle of the preterite; English used the auxiliary verb to be, of several stems, and mixed with forms of the verb *vēsan* and its participles: I am loved; I was loved. Old-English also employed for a long time the verb *worthen*, *worthe*: His lif and his soule *worthe ishend* (DAME SIRIZ p. 7). Chastité withouten charité *Worth cheyned* in helle (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 26.). No creature . . . Withouten cristendom *worth saved* (p. 244.). Ysaved *worstow* (p. 420.); as this verb also remained in use: What shalle *worthe* on me! (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 226. 263.) even in Chaucer and others.

The employment of all stems of the auxiliary verb, now be in the infinitive, mixed with the verb *vēsan*, was natural: Sey, that theise stones *be made* loves, ut lapides isti *fiant* panes (MAUNDEV. p. 98.). Thei brennen his body . . . to that entent, that he suffre no payne in erthe, to *ben eten* of wormes (p. 170.). That hathe *ben preved* (p. 100.).

- b) The **tenses** of the verb specify the sphere of time into which the activity falls. All activity belongs in fact either to the **present** or to the **past**; but it can also be imagined as happening in the **future**. But both the present and the past have their **before** and **after**, therefore ever a past in the rear and a future before them.

There arise therefore two series of the tenses of speech, one whereof makes the **standing point of the speaker** the centre, as the present, the other takes a **fact of the past** as the centre.

The first series we may call the tenses of the present; the others, those of the past.

English has, according to the precedent of Anglosaxon, only two **simple tenses**, a **present** and a **preterite**: love, loved; swim, swam. These form the centres of the other compound presents and preterites. Compound present tenses have present forms; compound preterites, on the other hand, preterites of auxiliary verbs alongside of the participle or infinitive, with which they together express periphrastically the absent simple tenses.

The auxiliary verbs which come under review are: to have, shall, will and, in intransitive verbs rarely: to be.

The **tenses of the present** are: the present: love; the perfect: have loved; the first future: shall (will) love; the second future: shall (will) have loved.

The **tenses of the past** are: the preterite: loved; the plusquamperfectum: had loved; the imperfect of the future, also the first conditional: should (would) love; the plusquamperfectum of the future, also second conditional: should (would) have loved. Both conditionals are commonly apprehended as conjunctives. The nature of these forms has to be more particularly discussed in the Syntax.

As to the formation of the periphrastic forms, the verb *habban*, *hābban* (to have) was employed with the participle periphrastically, even in Anglosaxon, like as *habere* in Latin in *habeo perspec-*

tum &c. Old-English early used to have with transitive and intransitive verbs: I *have dwelled*, *habitavi* (MAUNDEV. p. 110.). Where *has* thou thus long *be*? (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 25.). He *hathe* . . and alle weye *hathe had* (MAUNDEV. p. 296.). *zif* here fadre *had not ben* dronken, he *hadde* not *yleye* with hem (p. 102.).

The anomalous *scal*, *sceal* (shall) with the infinitive was also used to form the future periphrastically, though not without the recollection of its original meaning, namely of an ethical necessity (*debeo*), which has not quite vanished, even in English. The Anglosaxon *villan* (will) is not yet found used periphrastically, but in English early took the place of *scal*, of course not without reference to the notion of an inclination, tendency, and then of aptness and appropriateness. In Old-English *shal* is early universal as a periphrasis: That ne *shal nevere be* That I *shal don* selk *falsete* (DAME SIRIZ p. 5.). That I have thought I *shalle fulfille* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 1.). What art thou that thus *tellys* afore that *shalle be*? (p. 24.). And whan he *felte wel*, that he *scholde dye* (MAUNDEV. p. 228.). But *will* is also found early: As me (men) *dep zet*, and euer more *wole* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 24.). *zif* the erthe were made *moyst* and *weet* . . it *wolde never bere fruyt* (MAUNDEV. p. 100.). The distinction of the periphrasis in *shall* or *will*, when *shall* is mostly restricted to the first person, is unknown to Old-English, in which the use of *shall* generally preponderates. Even in Shakespeare's age this distinction is less universal. See Mommsen's *Rom.* and *Juliet* p. 1109. The details belong to Syntax. We shall speak of further periphrastic forms below.

With regard to the employment of the verb to have, we must observe that the active of all transitive and reflective verbs is conjugated with to have. With intransitives, on the contrary, to be is also frequently found employed: The third day *'s come* and *gone* (L. BYRON). When the sun *is set* (MILTON). She can not *be fled* far (L. BYRON). This is founded upon an Anglosaxon precedent. Some grammarians wholly reject this formation, others declare both forms to be indifferent. Linguistic usage annexes syntactic differences to each, which belong to Syntax.

- c) The *modes*, which serve to express the subjective relation of the speaker to the predicate in thought and will, are: the *indicative*, which lays down the predicate objectively; the *conjunctive*, which expresses it reflectively, and the *imperative*, which represents it as an expression of will. Modern-English, besides the indicative, has also a form of the imperative, coinciding certainly with others. The forms of the conjunctive, except in the present of verbs, have become almost totally unrecognizable, or those of the indicative have taken their place, so that even the existence of a conjunctive is denied. Old-English frequently drew a distinction betwixt indicative and conjunctive forms, as Modern-English still sometimes does.
- d) The distinction of the three *personal forms* of the singular and plural in the verb, which was frequently effaced in Anglosaxon, is still more so in Modern-English, where the plural has completely cast off its inflective forms. The accession of the personal pronouns to distinguish the speaker or speakers, the person or persons

spoken to and the person or persons spoken of is frequently governed thereby.

- e) The **middle forms** of the verb are those forms which border on the one hand on the substantive; (the infinitive and the gerund) on the other, on the adjective (participles).

The **infinitive** names the activity abstractly, without predicating it immediately of any determinate subject, while it distinguishes it according to the reference to present or past time: to love, to have loved. It has almost entirely lost its characteristic terminations.

The **gerund**, likewise expressing the distinction of time, leans upon the participial form of the present, but has preserved the substantive meaning, originally belonging to this form, more than the French gerund in *ant* (-*ndum*), which likewise coincided with the participle of the present *ant* (-*ntem*): loving — having loved.

The **participles**, or adjective verbal forms, are that of the present: loving, and that of the perfect: loved.

How far these forms diverge from the Anglosaxon will be pointed out below.

The weak and the strong conjugation.

Like all Germanic tongues, Anglosaxon distinguished a **weak** and a **strong** conjugation, the latter whereof, the old, or the primitive, was in English more and more supplanted by the weak one, which is now usually opposed to the strong one as the **regular** to the **irregular**.

Both Anglosaxon conjugations are essentially distinguished by the **weak** one's forming its preterite by appending the suffix *de* (Conjunct. *dē*) to the verbal stem, which receives *ed* (*d*), in the participle of the perfect; and the **strong** one's, on the other hand, forming its preterite by a change in the fundamental vowel, or a variation of the vowel, while the participle of the perfect, which assumes the termination *en*, mostly receives the stem vowel of the present or that of the plural of the preterite.

The Anglosaxon weak conjugation has two different forms, according as the vowel *i* (as *ē* and *j*), or the vowel *o* (this however only in the preterite and participle of the perfect as *ō*) comes between the stem and the suffix. The connecting vowel *i* commonly falls out, if the syllable of the stem is long. Modern-English has preserved the connecting vowel *ē* in the termination of the preterite *ed*, the *j* still appears in the infinitive termination *y*. Old-English has the latter in other forms and also still shews the connecting vowel *o* of the second conjugation in the preterite.

The inflective terminations of the weak and of the strong Anglosaxon verb are, apart from the connecting vowels, alike in the indicative, conjunctive, imperative and participle of the present, as well as in the infinitive.

The following table places the Anglosaxon simple conjugations beside the Old- and the Modern-English, by which the progressive blunting and partial abandonment of suffixes will appear. The other forms of the weak and of the strong conjugation in Anglosaxon and English are discussed in detail further on.

Weak Conjugation.

Anglosaxon Ia.	Ib.	II.	Old-English.
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Present Indicative.

1. ner-j-e	hæl-e	luf-ig-e	hel-e
2. ner-ēst	hæl-ēst	luf-aſt	hel-est (es)
3. ner-ēð	hæl-ēð	luf-að	hel-eth
1. 1. ner-j-að	hæl-að	luf-j-að	hel-eth
2. ner-j-að	hæl-að	luf-j-að	or hel-en and
3. ner-j-að	hæl-að	luf-j-að	hel-e

Conjunctive.

1. 1. ner-j-e	hæl-e	luf-ig-e	hel-e
2. ner-j-e	hæl-e	luf-ig-e	hel-e
3. ner-j-e	hæl-e	luf-ig-e	hel-e
1. 1. ner-j-ân (en)	hæl-ân (en)	luf-j-ân (en)	hel-en
2. ner-j-ân (en)	hæl-ân (en)	luf-j-ân (en)	or hel-e
3. ner-j-ân (en)	hæl-ân (en)	luf-j-ân (en)	

Preterite Indicative.

1. 1. ner-ē-de	hæl-de	luf-ô-de	hel-e-de (d)
2. ner-ē-dest	hæl-dest	luf-ô-dest	hel-e-dest
3. ner-ē-de	hæl-de	luf-ô-de	hel-e-de (d)
1. 1. ner-ē-don	hæl-don	luf-ô-dun (don)	hel-e-den or
2. ner-ē-dou	hæl-don	luf-ô-dun (don)	hel-e-de,
3. ner-ē-don	hæl-don	luf-ô-dun (don)	hel-e-d

Conjunctive.

1. 1. ner-ē-dē	hæl-dē	luf-ô-dē	hel-e-de (d)
2. nēr-ē-dē	hæl-dē	luf-ô-dē	
3. nēr-ē-dē	hæl-dē	luf-ô-dē	
1. 1. nēr-ē-dēn (don)	hæl-dēn (don)	luf-ô-dēn (don)	hel-e-den, or
2. nēr-ē-dēn (don)	hæl-dēn (don)	luf-ô-dēn (don)	hel-e-de
3. nēr-ē-dēn (don)	hæl-dēn (don)	luf-ô-dēn (don)	hel-e-d

Imperative.

1. ner-ē (ner)	hæl	luf-a	hel-e
1. ner-j-að	hæl-að	luf-j-að	hel-eth, hel-e

Participle.

res. ner-j-ende	hæl-ende	luf-ig-ende	hel-ende, -inde, -ande, -end and -and, hel-ing
ret. ner-ēd	hæl-ēd	luf-ô-d	hel-ed

Infinitive.

ner-j-an	hæl-an	luf-j-an	hel-en, hel-e
salvare	sanare	amare	sanare

Strong Conjugation.

Modern-English.	Anglosaxon.	Old-English.	Modern-English.
Present Indicative.			
heal	bind-e	bind-e	bind
heal-est	bind-est (is)	bind-est	bind-est
heal-s	bind-icð (ið) con- tracted bint	bind-eth, also bint	bind-s
{ heal	bind-að bind-aŋ bind-að	{ bind-eth or bind- en and binde-e }	bind
Conjunctive.			
{ heal	bind-e bind-e bind-e	bind-e bind-e bind-e	{ bind
{ heal	bind-ân (en) bind-ân (en) bind-ân (en)	{ bind-en or bind-e }	bind
Preterite Indicative.			
heal-e-d	band	band (bond)	bound
heal-e-dst	bund-ē	bond-e	boun-dst
heal-e-d	band	band (bond)	bound
{ heal-e-d	bund-un (on) bund-un (on) bund-un (on)	{ bond-en or bond- -e, bond }	bound
Conjunctive.			
{ heal-e-d as in the indi- cative	bund-ē bund-ē bund-ē	{ bond-e	{ bound as in the indica- tive
{ heal-e-d	bund-ēn (on) bund-ēn (on) bund-ēn (on)	{ bond-en (e)	{ bound
Imperative.			
{ heal	bind bind-að	bind bind-eth	{ bind
Participles.			
heal-ing	bind-ende	bind-ende, inde, ande, end, and &c.	bind-ing
heal-ed	bund-en	bond-en, bond-e, bond (bound)	bound
Infinitive.			
heal —	bindan ligare	bind-en, e —	bind —

From the foregoing table it appears that the weak English conjugation attaches itself to the first Anglosaxon one, especially in its second form.

- 1 Of the connecting vowels *i* (*ē, j, ig*) has in general been lost in English, with the exception of *ē* in the preterite, which sometimes, even in the preterite, took the place of the *ā*, which also interchanged with *ō*. We might certainly take the English *e* in *ed* to have been subsequently inserted; but the older full forms do not seem to allow this. The connecting vowel *i* (*ē, j, ig*), even in Anglosaxon, was partly thrown out in verbs with a short syllable of the stem, upon which anomalous forms of the weak English conjugation, which will be discussed below, are founded. This connecting vowel nevertheless was not only long preserved in Old-English, but has also, as *y* and *i*, penetrated into Anglosaxon verbs and tenses to which it did not belong. Thus we find *y* (*i*) preserved for *j* and *ig* in the indicative and conjunctive of the present; in the indicative in: Ich *hoppe*, Anglosaxon *hopjan*, -ōde (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 195.). We *louieth*; *3e ne louieth*, Anglosaxon *lufjan* (II. 503.). Hii *askyeth*, Anglosaxon *āscjan*, -ōde (I. 200.); Therinne *wonyeth* a wight, Anglos. *vunjan*, -ōde (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 18.). The world that *wanyeth*, Anglosaxon *vanjan*, -ōde (p. 153.); in the conjunctive in: That thou *hatie*, Anglosaxon *hatjan*, -ōde (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 120.). So leauté thee *lovye* (p. 8.). Though no plough *erye*, Anglosaxon *erjan*, -ede (p. 275.). It is very common in the infinitive, which presents itself as *yen* (*ien*), *ye* and *y*: *lovien* (DAME SIRIZ p. 9.). *wonye* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 41.) *polye*, Anglosaxon *poljan* (IB. 205.). *ansuerye* (194.). *makye*, Anglosaxon *macjan* (II. 404.). *sparye*, Anglosaxon *sparjan* (IB. 428.) &c. *honty*, Anglosaxon *huntjan* (I. 16.). *bapi*, Anglosaxon *baðjan* (IB. 146.). *endy*, Anglosaxon *endjan* (187.). Where this *y, i* is transferred to the preterite and participle perfect, the connecting vowel properly appears twice, as *y* (*i*) and *e* at the same time: *Tulieden* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 277.). *My wit wanyed*, Anglosaxon *vanjan*, -ōde (p. 294.). *Ytilied*, Part. Perf. (p. 301.). In analogy to such verbs the Old-French verbs in *ier* were treated and other Anglosaxon and French ones assimilated to them. Comp. p. 161.

- The connecting vowel *o* in the preterite has been here and there preserved in Old-English: He *ascōde* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. p. 127.), and also transferred to other verbs: *robboðe* (IB. 149.); *destruioðe* (3); *buryoðe*, Anglosaxon *byrgan*, *byrigde* (50.); *dyoðon* (died) (TENDALE p. 52.). Yet *o* is early lost
2. The suffixes of the Anglosaxon have been subjected to various changes and interchanges in English.

In the present the first person singular of the indicative, as well as the three persons singular of the conjunctive, often offer *e*, not as a sign of lengthening, but as a remnant of the *e* of inflection; compare *axe*, *putte*, *walke*, *telle*, *sinke*, *kisse*, *gesse* &c., although forms without *e* are already becoming familiar. An *e* is certainly frequently joined to the forms of the preterite of strong verbs, where it was absent in Anglosaxon,

as in *halpe*, *stanke*, *dranke*, *felle* &c., which may be derived from the *e* of the second person sing. indic. and the conjunctive forms of the sing. preter., since it must be granted that confusion early prevailed in this respect. The habituation to a final *e*, which for a long time was not silent, has caused it to be appended to other Old-English verbal suffixes, particularly to terminations in *eth* especially of the third person singular, yet also of the plural and of the old imperative in *eth*; compare above p. 325, and for the plural: *Aftre arryvethe men* (MAUNDEV. p. 54.). *Men gothe* (p. 31.), for the imperative: *And witethe wel* (IB. p. 95.). *Makethe pees* (p. 234.). To the oldest English language this is foreign; yet up to the sixteenth century we find forms of this sort: *My simithe* (seems) (JACK JUGLER p. 11.). In them that *dothe* not me in lete (p. 17.). *Dogges dothe barke* (SKELTON I. 241.). Even to the second person in *st e* is often appended: *Thow byste* (PERCY Rel. p. 6. II.); frequently with the rejection of the *t*: *Thou saysse* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 4.).

The second person of the singular in the indicative still commonly appears in Old- and Modern-English in the form *est*: *grant*, *grant-est*; *love*, *lov-est*. With verbs having a mute *e* in the first person, this *e*, if we impute it to the stem, is thrown off; the *e* in *est* being rather to be regarded as the characteristic vowel of the suffix. The *e* of inflection is rarely thrown off after a vowel, as *iñ* dost alongside of *doest*, *mayst* alongside of *mayest* (properly a preterito-present) and in the contracted form *hast* (Anglosaxon *hafast*), as well as in the preterito-present *canst* (Anglosaxon *canst*). In Old-English we also find forms like *seist* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 394.), *saist*, *saiest*, *sayest* beside each other. Modern-English gives to verbs in *ey*, *ay* the full termination: Which here thou viewest, beholdest, *surveyest* or *seest* (SHAKSP. Love's L. L. I. 1.). Even as thou *sayest*! And how my heart beats when thou *stayest*! (LONGFELLOW). The casting out of the *e* especially in poetry, both after a short and a long syllable of the stem and ending in a vowel, is however, not uncommon, where its rejection is signified by the mark of elision: *bring'st*, *stand'st*, *lov'st*, *giv'st*, *com'st*, *join'st*, *point'st*, *bear'st*, *wear'st*, *sail'st*, *keep'st*, *striks't*, *deny'st*. We also find *may'st* and even *can'st*. J. Wallis said: In terminationibus *est*, *eth*, *ed* vocalis *e*, fere ad placitum, per syncopen tollitur.

Old-English frequently offers the termination *es*, and alongside thereof *is*, *ys*, instead of *est*; it was peculiar to the Northern dialects. Is this a remnant of the rare Anglosaxon termination *is* in the strong conjugation, or a mere rejection of the *t*? *Wife*, come in, *Why standes* thou here? (CHEST. PLAYS). Thou *drownnes* myne herte (MORTE ARTHURE in Halliwell v. *drownne*). Thou *likes* thi play (TRUE THOMAS in Halliwell v. *lefe-long*). Thou *gettes* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 14.). *Lufes* thou me? (p. 37.). *Heris* thou (p. 9.). *Knowys* thou? (p. 273.); and with the *e* thrown out: Thou *says* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 271.). Thou *gets* hurr not swa (PERCY Rel. p. 94. I.). Thou *speks* (IB. II.). Scotch has also the form of the second person *is*: *Gif that be trew that*

thou *reportis* (D. LINDSAY 3, 4.). We often find *thou* united enclitically with the second person, so that it remains uncertain, whether, in the *st* which has arisen by assimilation, the *t* belongs to the inflection or to the *thou*: *Herestow* not? (CHAUCER 3366.). *Sestow* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 307.); as also in the preterite: *herdestow* (WEBER), *haddestow* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 226.). The termination *es*, *ys* extends even beyond the seventeenth century: Thou *sees* (SKELTON I. 144.). Thou *spekys*; *Thynkys* thou (263.). Thou *has* disarmed my soul (CONGREVE 1669=1729.). — As in the third person *s* took the place of *th*, so *th* often takes the place of this *s*, especially thou doth, thou hath and the like, in Skelton I. 260. 262. — The *not* denoting the second person of the indicative by a suffix is very common in Old-English in preterito-presents (see below): thou will, wille, wil; thou shall, shalle, shal; thou can; thou mote &c., and extends into the sixteenth century. It has also been extended to other verbs: I trowe, thou *knowe* not me (SKELTON I. 43.).

The third person of the singular in the indicative appears in the oldest time regular, with the suffix *eth*, in which also the vowel *y*, *i* appears: he grauntheth, precheth, asketh, useth, as-soileth, helpeth; benymyp, delyueryp (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), techyth (HALLIWELL Hist. of Fr. M. p. 23.), clevyth (HALLIWELL v. cleven), approchyth (SKELTON I. 5.), excedyth, (307.), nedith, dwellith (JACK JUGLER) &c., when *eth* and *yth* often stand alongside of each other, and the vowel is cast off after vowels, as in doth, goth, and in hath, hep, Anglosaxon hæfð. It has been preserved down to the latest times as *eth*, but has remained only in ecclesiastical language, poetry and solemn speech. *Es*, *ys* early took its place, particularly in Northern and Eastern dialects. In the Towneley Mysteries, which belong to the more Northern dialects, *ys*, *is* run parallel to *es*, as the Scottish, which always let the vowel *i* penetrate instead of *e*, used *is*. Chaucer, in the Reeves Tale, puts the forms fares, makes, findes, brings, says, has into the mouths of the people of Cambridge. The suffix *is* is found late, as in Skelton, alongside of others.

In Modern-English the suffix *es* is added to the stem when it ends in a sibilant or a hissing sound: *ss*, *z* (*zz*), *x*, *sh*, *ch*; also after *y*, preceded by a consonant, *es* stands (with the transformation of the *y* into *i*). Further, *es* appears, if the verb in the first person ends in a mute *e*, where it then remains doubtful whether the *e* in *es* is to be ascribed to the old suffix, which however has been elsewhere preserved only for phonetic reasons: he bless-es, wish-es, mix-es, tri-es, rag-e-s, lov-e-s &c. Else after consonants and vowels only *s* now in general enters as a letter of inflection. After a single *o* *es* stands: goes, does; after *oo* *s*: She woos (SHAKESPEARE Two G. of V.) and so often in L. Byron; but also *es*: The stock-dove . . cooes (THOMSON). The verb *ba* in Shakspeare, now commonly baa, has *baes* (MUCH ADO &c. 3, 3.).

The preterito-presents can, shall, may, will have assumed no *es*, *s*, which did not originally belong to them (see below). The

verb to will, cupere, with its regular inflection, is not the preterito-present verb, but answers to the Anglosaxon villjan, -ôde, -ôd. The preterito-present dare fluctuates (Anglosaxon 3. pers. dearr). The collateral form to dare, is inflected regularly and always has dares; but the justified dare has also been preserved from the older form along with dares: Old-English: No man dar entrein in to it (MAUNDEV p. 273. bis). She dare not . . shryuen be (THE PARDONER AND THE FRERE 1533. p. 47.). Here is none that dare well other truste (SKELTON I. 38.); and so in Shakspeare: The duke dare No more stretch this finger of mine, than he Dare rack his own (MEAS. FOR MEAS.). I know, thou dar'st But this thing dare not (TEMP.). Who dare tell her so? (MUCH ADO) &c.

More striking is the rejection of the suffix in need alongside of needs, the former of which usually occurs intransitively, the latter transitively, although needs stands intransitively, like the Old-English needeth (CHAUCER 3599. 4159.). The rejection belongs, it seems, to a later period of Old-English. Compare: What nede all this be spoken? (SKELTON I. 111.). What nede all this waste? (249.) often in Shakspeare and subsequent writers: What need a man care for a stock? (TWO GENTLEM. OF V.). Why, she has not writ to me. — What need she, when she has made you write to yourself? (IB.) What need the bridge much broader than the flood? (MUCH ADO &c.) One need only read (POPE). He need not go (WIBST.). To fly from, need not be to hate mankind (L. BYRON). With impersonal verbs the rejection is not rare in Old-English, thus especially in: me thynk, me thynke (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 271. 275. 277. SKELTON I. 39. 255. &c.). It also occurs with other verbs, for instance: God take (MAUNDEV. p. 295.). He dred hym (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 270.); where, however, dred might be the contracted form for drat.

In Old-English in the third person, the vowel of the suffix often suffers syncope, if the verbal stem ends in *t* or *d* or even *s*, and then offers *t* instead of *th*: sit or sitt (sitteth), smit (smiteth), list, lust (listeth, lusteth), rest (resteth), bint (bindeth, compare above the Anglosaxon bint), fint (findeth), stant, stont (standeth), bit (biddeth), rit (rideth), bitit (bitideth), holt (holdeth), rist (riseth). Of these forms *list* has passed over into the modern language: Go to bed when she *list*, rise when she *list* (SHAKSPEARE Merry Wives).

The three persons of the plural in the indicat. present appear in the oldest language as *eth*, rarely *oth* or *uth*: Ase and we vorleteth oure yelderes (Pater Nost. in the Kentish dialect, according to Ellis). We bep ybore (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 111. [even in PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 44.]). We honourep Venus (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 112.). Alle that beoth of huerte trewe . . herkneth (PERCY Rel. p. 91. I. sec. XIV.). Ye . . that precheth (CHAUCER Rom. of the R. p. 248. Tyrwh.). pe yle of Man pat me (men) clepup (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 2.). pe stones stondep . . and oper liggep (IB. 7.). pre wondres per bep in Engolond (IB.). Lettred men it knoweth (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 23.). These

forms extend into and beyond the sixteenth century, particularly in the third person: Your clokes *smelleth* musty (SKELTON I. 250.). Her eyen . . . *Causeth* myne hert to lepe (IB. 52.). Such tungen . . . *hath* made great diuision (134.). *Ith*, instead of *eth* is here seldom met with. But afterwards we find *es* and *is*, *ys* along with *eth*, particularly in the North, where these forms quite coincide with the third person singular: We er richer men than he, and mor gode *haves* (PERCY Rel. p. 93. II.). Ye . . . *beggys* (SKELTON I. 20.). O happy be ye, beastes wild, That here your pasture *takes* (PERCY Rel. p. 106. II. sec. XVI.). Now alle wymmen that *has* your wytte (Ms. in Halliwell v. myculle); Scottish: Ye . . . *cryis* (S. DAV. LINDSAY 3. p. 16.). Sum *takis* thair gait to Gabriell (IB. p. 7.). Prelatis, quhilkis *hes* of thame the cure (IB.). The employment especially of the third person of the plural extends deep into the seventeenth century, particularly with Northern writers: Now rebels more *prevails* with words Than drawgoons *does* with guns and swords; and: Yea, those that were the greatest rogues, *Follows* them over hills and bogues (CLELAND's Poems 1697. p. 30.). These considerations may serve to explain many apparent singulars in Shakspeare, which editors have in part tacitly transformed into plurals, partly tried to explain artificially: *All his successors*, gone before him, *hath* done 't (MERRY Wiv. 1, 1.). *Words* to the heat of deeds to cold breath *gives* (OTH. 2, 1.) and others. S. Mommsen Romeo and Juliet p. 26. Delius Shakspeare Lexicon p. XVII.

The plural suffix *en*, which belonged to the conjunctive, appears early in the indicative as well as the conjunctive. The confusion of *en* and *eth* is shewn, for instance, in: If ye *loven* leelly, And *lene* the povere, Swich good . . . Goodliche *parteth* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 25.); where the genuine conjunctive, the rejection of inflection, and at the same time the indicative form instead of the conjunctive stand; and thus we find *en* (from which *e* is cast out after vowels) countless times alongside of *eth* also in the indicative in all three persons: *We seen* it wel (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 18.). Ye men that *ben* murye (p. 13.). Whan ye *wenden* hennes (p. 25.). In glotonye . . . *Go* thei to bedde And *risen* with ribaudie (p. 3.). Alle that *helpen* the innocent And *holden* with the rightfule, Withouten mede *doth* hem good, And the truthe *helpeth* &c. (p. 57.). On the other hand the rejection of the inflective termination gains great extension even in the fourteenth century. The termination *en* disappears earlier from the conjunctive and indicative than the termination *eth* from the latter. In Lancashire the termination *en* is preserved, although it is commonly mute, as it is still in use in Gloucestershire and other counties.

The preterite of the weak conjugation appeared in the forms of the indicative and conjunctive, which ended in *e-de*, *e-dē* (*ô-de*), with the full termination *ede* (*ode*): folwede, fondede, juggede &c.; ascode, robbode (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); but the final *e* was soon very frequently absent, even along with forms having it. *e* was kept longer in the forms which suffered syncope,

whose connecting vowel was thrown out, and of which we shall speak hereafter: saide, paide, laide, herde, made, hadde &c., along with which however said, paid, laid &c. also here and there appear. In the fifteenth century the final *e* gradually disappears. In Modern-English it has been abandoned. Along with *ed*, *id*, *yd* also frequently shew themselves. The *manteynid* me in my pride (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 7.). I *storyd* my cofers (SKELTON I. 3.). I *amendid* Douer (IB.). Ye *armyd* you (8.). I *folowid* him (JACK JUGL. p. 15.); particularly in Northern dialects, where *et* and *it* (the latter also in Scotch, as in the perfect participle) also occurs: Robin that *dinet* with me (Ms. in Halliwell s. v.); Scotch: Quhen he *belevit* thay war brynt (S. DAV. LINDSAY 3, p. 10.). In a few cases *e* before *d* (and *t*) in Modern-English, as in Old-English, suffered syncope. See below. In poetry, however, this *e* is frequently thrown out, but its place is then supplied, both after consonants and vowels, by the mark of elision: ask'd, wing'd, reach'd, seem'd, guess'd, cross'd. trimm'd, fann'd, flow'd, delay'd &c.

In the second person singular of the indicative of the weak conjugation Old-English joins *edest* to the verbal stem: folwedest, fondedest, ravishedest, assentedest &c., when those forms in which *e* before *d* suffers syncope preserve *est*: herdest, haddest, cridest, dweltest, broughtest. The syncope of *e* before *st* is rare, as in *hadst* and others. In Modern-English it has become the law, although the rejected *e* is still often supplied by a mark of elision, as *was* taught by grammarians in the seventeenth century. Hence would'st, should'st, told'st, did'st are often found alongside of wouldst &c. The transfer of this suffix of the weak conjugation to the strong one belongs to the later Old-English. The oldest language here regularly gives an *e* to the second person singular in the preterite, as well as to the three persons of the singular of the conjunctive: pou slowe, drowe; bede (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 133.). Thow *gete* . . and *breke* . . and *sete* . . and *eggedest* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 386.). Thou *crewe* (SKELTON I. 44.). Thou *sawe* (299.). Where *gatte* thou that *mangey curre*? (263.). *E* is rarely cast off: Thou *saw* me not (PERCY Rel. p. 8. I., [compare IB. p. 94. I.]). In Modern-English poets still sometimes use the strong form without (*e*)*st*: Thou, who didst call the Furies from the abyss, And round Orestes *bade* them howl and hiss (L. BYRON). In the fourteenth century we here and there meet the transfer of the suffix *est* to strong verbs: Ful wrongfully *bygonnest* thow (CHAUCER 12370.); which subsequently became universal. The *e* is sometimes preserved after vowels in Modern-English, as in *knewest*, but commonly suffers syncope and has its place supplied by the mark of elision: began'st, saw'st. The suffix has thus penetrated into the conjunctive both of strong and weak verbs. We find it even in the Romaunt of the Rose: For certes, though thou *haddest* it sworne &c. (p. 257. ed. Tyrwh.). Yet even in Modern-English the conjunctive form without *est* has been preserved, against which modern grammarians however, express themselves. See Murray p. 201.

Conversely, even in Old-English we find an influence of the second person of the strong form upon the weak conjugation, which likewise often cast off the suffix *est*: Thou *maide* bothe nyght and day (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 20.). This *did* thou (IB.). Thou *had* (p. 270.). I thank the, Lord, . . that *wold* vouch sayf &c. (p. 24.). Thou *wisted* nat right now (CHAUCER 1158. Tyrwh., where Wright, contrary to the metre, gives *wost*): Why *nad* (= ne had) thou put the capil in the lathe? (4086. Wright). Thou *answered* (ROM. OF THE ROSE p. 225. II.). The olde name . . that thou *had* had (SKELTON I. p. 242.). What thou *sayd* yester nyght (p. 42.). Thus the preterito-presents especially are often put without the suffix. This usage is also sometimes found in Modern-English: Detested as thou art and *ought* to be (POPE). There thou . . once *formed* thy Paradise (L. BYRON).

Verbs which appear to have suffered syncope in the preterite, like *cast*, *burst*, assume *edst* in the preterite, that is to say, they pass into the regular form. They are, however, often found used in the second person without this suffix, for which the avoiding of the misound is quoted as the reason.

The plural forms of the indicative and conjunctive of the preterite, which in Anglosaxon end in *ēdon*, *ōdun* (*on*) and *ēdēn* (also *ēdon*) and in the strong conjugation in *un* (*on*), mostly offer in Old-English the forms *eden*, rarely *oden* (in the contracted forms *den*, *ten*) and *en*, alongside whereof also *edon* and *on*, rarely suffixes with *yn* occur: *woneden*, *filleden*, *weyeden*, *hateden*, *refuseden*, *consenteden*, *carrieden* &c.; *hadden*, *maden*, *criden*, *laiden*, *lepten* (from *leap*) &c.; — *clomben*, *ronnen*, *gonnen*, *eten* &c.; *destruiodon*, *robboden*, *dyodon* (= died, see HALLIWELL s. v.), *clepton*, *clombon*, *eton* &c.; *daltyn* (= dealt, see HALLIWELL s. v.). Yet we very early find the rejection of the *n* alongside of the fuller forms, as in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER: *buryode*, *destruioode*, *worrede*, *were*, *nome*, *wonne*, *overcome* &c. Forms with *en* quite cast off, in particular in the suffix *eden*, often stand promiscuously with fuller ones, as in Piers Ploughman and Chaucer &c. The complete casting off of the inflective termination *en* was soon the result. The transfer of it to the singular, often met with in Maundeville, is peculiar: As longe as the cros *myghten* laste (p. 10.). Whan on *overcomen*, he scholde he crowned (p. 11.). Compare p. 35. 63. 77. &c.

The Imperative is in Modern-English confined to one form, that of the singular in Old-English. The plural form in *eth* was long preserved: *Armeþ* you faste (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 18.). And *witethe* wel (MAUNDEV. p. 42.). And *undre stondeþe* &c. (p. 51.). Now *herkneþ* (CHAUCER 3138.). *Avyseth* you (3185.). *Sitteth* alle stille, and *herkneþ* to me (PERCY Rel. p. 90. I.). The plural is also used in courteously addressing one person: *Cometh* ner . . my lady . . And ye, sir clerk, *let* (contracted from *letteth*) be your shamfastnesse, Ne *studieth* nat (CHAUCER 841.). Northern dialects have also *s* for *th*: *Drawes* on (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 8.). *Herkyns* alle (p. 49.). The form commonly referred to the singular is however, sometimes found for the plural before

the end of the fourteenth century: *Take the a lytille bawme . . and touche it to the fuyr* (MAUNDEV. p. 51.). For the first person plural the conjunctive with *we* often stands, as now: *Make we here 3 dwelling places (= faciamus)* (MAUNDEV. p. 114.). *Cometh with me . . And holde we us there And crye we* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 429.). *Make we to him an help* (CHAUCER II. p. 335. Wright). Modern-English: *Then go we near her* (SHAKSP. Much. Ado &c.). *Reap we not the ripened wheat, Till yonder hosts are flying* (BRYANT). *Watch we in calmness, as they rise, The changes of that rapid dream* (ID.). The sole imperative form now in use not only takes the place of the plural, but is also employed as a genuine singular: *Be thou familiar, but by no means vulgar* (SHAKSP. Jul. C.). *Yet fear not thou* (LOVE'S L. L.). *Mischief . . Take thou what course thou wilt* (JUL. C.). The periphrasis with the verb *let* is also old: *Let us gang* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 9.), *Let us se which of hem hath spoke most resonably* (CHAUCER II. p. 348.). Modern-English: *Let's stay and hear the will* (SHAKSP. Jul. C.). *Come, let me clutch thee* (MACB.).

Among the participial forms the gerund participle, at present with the suffix *ing*, which in Anglosaxon is a substantive and also sometimes an adjective, has proceeded from a remarkable interchange of the suffix *ende* with the former. The interchange is old; the Halfsaxon of Orm and Layamon has *waldinge* for *waldend*. Both however long ran parallel with each other. Besides in the Southern dialects *inde*, *ynde* appears instead of *ende*, as in the Northern *ande*; as, for instance, in the Old-Kentish Credo: *lyf evrelestinde* and in the Pat. Nost. *cominde thi riche*; in Rob. of Gloucester *sykynde* (l. 323.). *Ofte wepynd* (328.); *berninde* *tapers* (ll. 534.); — *carvande*, *rydande* (Ms. in Halliwell v. *carvande*); *prickand*, *speakand* (ELLIS Met. Rom. II. 18.); *styrande* (PERCY Rel. p. 93. II.); *rydand* (p. 93. II.); *brenand*, *thrustand* (p. 94. I.); *styncand* (PIERS PLOUGHM. Creed p. 489.); *lepande* (ROM. OF THE ROSE p. 225. I.); *sittand* (p. 227. II.); *doand* (p. 230. II.); *criand* (p. 233. II.) &c., as in Scotch: *askand*, *speikand*, *hopeand*, *growand*, *seand*, *sittand*, *provokand*, *tryumphand* &c., in D. Lindsay; alongside of which run *comende*, *fynende*, *contrariende* &c., in Gower, *losende* &c. even in Skelton I, 407. As in Scotch the forms in *ing* likewise ran alongside (compare *chusing*, *twyching* = *touching*, *pertening*, *remaning*, *using* &c. in Lindsay), so too in English. Could the frequent dialectical silence of *g* in *ing* have supported the interchange of *ind* and *ing*, and, on the other hand the Old-French form *ant* the use of *and*? Thus in Lindsay triumphant stands along with *triumphand* &c. Yet here the Old-norse participle in *andi* may have cooperated. In the fourteenth century *ing* was already widely diffused, in Modern-English hardly a trace of the old terminations has been preserved.

The suffix of the participle-perfect of the weak conjugation was and continued *ed* (except in forms suffering syncope, whereof below); alongside whereof we find earlier, and down to the six-

teenth century *id* (compare *shewyd*, *clokyd*, *vexyd*, *annexyd* in Skelton; *refreshid*, *disposid* &c. in Jack Jugler), as well as in the preterite, and likewise *it*, as in Skelton: Thy sword, *enharpit* of mortale drede (l. 11.), as in Scotch. Even *ud* is found; *pat* Stonhenge is *yclepud* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 7.). Of the participle of the strong conjugation in *en* we shall speak further on. Before both participles moreover, *y*, *i* (Anglosaxon *ge*), is frequently placed in Old-English; sometimes *ye*: *yebent*, (PERCY Rel. p. 3. l.). Instances are very frequent in Old-English; in Modern-English the particle shews itself in some archaic forms as *y*. Compare: Spring *yclad* in grassy die (L. BYRON). And he that unawares had there *ygazed* (ID.); see p. 158. In Anglo-saxon it frequently served to compound with verbs in all their inflective forms; placed before some tenses it changed the preterite into a plusquamperfect, the present into a futurum exactum, and the like. Its fundamental meaning was that of completion and duration. In Old-English *y* also stands before other verbal forms.

The infinitive suffix *en*, Anglosaxon *an*, at first blunted down to *e*, has finally vanished in many verbs. In the fourteenth century forms with and without *n* commonly stand immediately beside each other: To *bakbite* and to *bosten* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 33). And al day to *drinken*. At diverse tavernes, And there to *jangle* and *jape* (IB.). Besides see p. 175.

3. The changes produced in the stem, in weak as well as in strong verbs, solely by the inflective terminations, are the following:

If a verb ends in an accented or unaccented *y* with a consonant immediately preceding, the vowel *y* is changed into *i* in Modern-English before suffixes originally syllabic, with the exception of *ing*: try, trying — triest, tries, tried; carry, carrying — carriest, carries, carried. If *e* is elided and the elision denoted by ' , *y* remains: deny'st, deny'd.

If a simple or compound verb, whose last syllable is accented, ends in a single consonant preceded by a single short vowel, the final consonant is doubled before syllabic suffixes. Here the double consonant contained in the infinitive in the fundamental forms frequently reappears: whet — whettest, whetted, whetting; remit — remittest, remitted, remitting; — swim — swimdest, swimming; bid — biddest, bidding, bidden. — To these words other polysyllabic verbs with an unaccented final syllable ending in simple consonants have been assimilated, as: góssip, wórship, kídnáp, péril, cóunsél, trável, rival, équal, cárol and the like, also bias and verbs in *ic*, as traffic, frolic, with which *c* is doubled as *ck*: trafficked, trafficked, trafficking, in which phonetic reasons partly prevail. English grammarians are not agreed upon the extent of this usage, and the doubling of the consonant in polysyllabic verbs in *ip*, *op*, *it*, *et* is disapproved of.

The not doubling the consonant in the accented final syllable with the elision of the *e*, as in *stun'd*, *began'st* &c., appears a fault, so far as it may give occasion to confusion, since, for

instance, stil'd for still'd might also be taken for stiled (sty-
led), and so in many other cases.

Anomalous Verbs of the weak Conjugation.

Among the weak verbs is a multitude of anomalous ones, which do not simply join the suffixes to the stem, but undergo partly syncope in the suffix and the stem, partly changes of the suffixed consonants, as well as of the consonants and vowels of the stem. They rest essentially upon contraction and assimilation, and lean for the most part on Anglosaxon forms.

In the citation of Old-English forms the fuller and therefore older are chiefly stated, when the shortening of the suffixes going on even in Old-English is not regarded. The verbal forms above cited are the infinitive, the same as the present, the preterite and the perfect participle. What is true of simple words is commonly true of the compounds also.

1) Some verbs regularly assume *d* instead of *ed* in the preterite and participle.

a) Here belong verbs in *ay*, whose *y* is then changed into *i*; they owe their origin to Anglosaxon verbs in *eg*, to which some Romance words are assimilated.

lay; laid; laid. Anglosaxon *lecgan*; *legde*, *lêde*; *leged*, *lêd*. Old-English *leggen*, *leyen*; *leyde*, *leide*; *leid*. For *ei*, *ai* often appears in Old-English; even Anglosaxon sometimes has *læde*.

The compound *belay* is cited with the forms *belaid* and *belayed*; Anglosaxon *beleggan*, *circumdare*.

say; said; said. Anglosaxon *secgan*, *seggan*; *sægde*, *sæde*; *sægd*, *sæd*. Old-English *seggen*, *seyen*, *siggen*, *sayen*, *sayn*; *seide*, *saide*; *seid*, *said*.

In Old-English the participle often passes into the strong form: *Elde* . . . hath me biseye, with rejection of *n* in *PIERS PLOUGHM.* p. 437.; as with other verbs in *ay*: Your quene hath me *betrayne* (*SIR TAYMOURE* 165.). The participle *sain* stands even in *SHAKESPEARE LOVE'S* L. L. 3, 1.

pay; paid; paid. Old-French *paier*. Old-English *paien*, *payen*; *paide*; *paid*.

stay; staid; staid. The Old-French *estayer* and *esteir*, *steir* here mingle.

We also find the full form *stayed*: One scarce could say it moved or *stayed* (*LONGFELLOW*). In Old-English the *e* suffers syncope also in other corresponding verbs, as *pleyen*, *pleide* &c., *preyen*, *preide* &c., as it generally throws out *e* after vowels: *cryde*, *deyde* &c. in *Robert of Gloucester*. Modern-English only exceptionally admits the syncope of the *e*, when it does not employ the mark of elision.

b) Similar is the syncope of *e* after the vowels *e* and *o* in the following two verbs, when the vowel is shortened.

flee; fled; fled. Anglosaxon *fleoðan*, *fleón*; see *fleáh*, pl. *flugon*; *flogen*, *fugere*. Old-English even mixes the strong and the weak inflection: The Bretons *fleede* (*MORTE ARTHURE* in *Halliwell* s. v.).

In Piers Ploughman beside the infinitive *fleen* stands the preterite plur. *fledden*, p. 42. See the strong verb *fly*.

shoe; shod; shod. Anglosaxon *scôjan*, *sceôjan*; *scôde*; *scôd*. Old-English *shoen*; *shode*; *shod* (*shode*, *shoed*).

Old-English still has the long vowel, as the participle shews: *Hosyd* and *schode* he was (Ms. in Halliwell s. v). *Weet shoed* they gone (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 283).

- c) The casting out of the connecting vowel before *d* after a consonant concluding a syllable originally long, a standing usage in Anglosaxon with regard to the preterite, is now found only in one verb, ending in *r*, whose vowel is shortened in the derivative forms in Modern-English.

hear; heard; heard. Anglosaxon *hêran*, *hýran*; *hêrde*, *hýrde*; *hêred*, *hýred*. Old-English *heren*; *herde*; *herd*; even the *ý*-form sometimes presents itself as *u*: *hurde* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER).

The Old-English acknowledges extensively, according to the Anglosaxon usage, this rejection, which may still occur with the substitution of a mark of elision for the *e*; compare *renen*; *rerde*, *rerd*, Anglosaxon *rêran*; *rêrde*; *rêred*; *wenen*; *wende*; *wend*, Anglosaxon *vênan*; *vênde*; *vêned*, which was then transferred to other verbs, as: *answerde*, (Anglosaxon *ansvarôde*), *gaderde*, *conquerde* &c.

- d) Of the Anglosaxon verbs which received *ea* instead of *e* before the suffix in *d* two have been preserved; the *ea*(*l*) changes itself into a long *ō*(*l*).

tell; told; told. Anglosaxon *tellan* (= *teljan*); *tealde*; *teald* and *teled*; *teled*. Old-English *tellen*; *tolde*; *told*, along with the regular forms *telde*, *teld* in R. Brunne, Wicliffe, Spenser; still, dialectically, *telled*.

sell; sold; sold. Anglosaxon *sellan*, *syllan*; *sealde*; *seald*. Old-English *sellen*, also *sullen* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); *solde*; *sold*, dialectically also, *solded*.

- e) The three verbs *make*, *clothe* and *have* have, besides the connecting vowel (in the first two: *o*) lost or assimilated consonants unlike the *d*: *k* (*c*), *th*, *v* (*f*).

make; made; made. Anglosaxon *macjan*; *macôde*; *macôd*. Old-English *maken*; *makede*, *maide* (TOWNEL. MYST.), *maade* (WICLIFFE), *made*; *maked*, *maid*, *made*, *maad*. The full forms *makede*, *ymaked* still stand in Piers Ploughman, Chaucer and even later. The participle seems to have been the longest preserved.

clothe; clad; clad. along with which the regular forms *clothed*, *clothed* are used. Anglosaxon *clâðjan*; *clâðode*; *clâðod*. Old-English *clothen*, in Gower *cloden* (HALLIWELL v. *clode*); *cladde*; *clad*, frequently *clad*, especially in Northern dialects, compare Scotch *claith* = *cloth* and *cleed* = *to clothe*, Old-norse *klæda*. Along therewith the fuller form has ever been in use: *worthiliche yclothed* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 28.).

I cannot shew an Old-English infinitive *clathen*, which may be presumed. The assimilation of *th* to *d* is otherwise not unfamiliar; compare Old-English: *kithe*; *kidde*; *kid*; Anglosaxon *cýðan*; *cýðde*; *cýðed*, *cyd*, *declarare*, *narrare*; for which in Old-English forms with *u*

also occur, as *kudde* &c. Thus even now *tood* for *toothed* in popular usage. The shortening of the *a* is easily to be explained.

have; had; had. Anglosaxon *habban*, *hābban*; *hāfde*; *hāfed*. Old-English *habben*, *haven*, *han*; *hevede*, *havede*, *hadde*; *haved*, *had*.

This verb has undergone various contractions, a part whereof belongs to the Anglosaxon. It also passed in part from the first into the second weak conjugation.

Anglosaxon present ind. sing. 1. *hābbe* 2. *hafast*, *hāfst*. 3. *hafad*, *hāfd*. Plur. 1. 2. 3. *habbað*. Conj. sing. 1. 2. 3. *hābbe*. Plur. 1. 2. 3. *hābbān* (en).

Pret. ind. sing. 1. *hāfde* 2. *hāfdest* 3. *hāfde*. Plur. 1. 2. 3. *hāfdon*. Conj. sing. 1. 2. 3. *hāfdē*. Plur. 1. 2. 3. *hāfdēn* (on) Imp. sing. *hafa*. Plur. *habbað*. Part. 1. *hābbende*. 2. *hāfed*, *hāfd*. Inf. *habban*, *hābban*.

Modern-English pres. ind. sing. 1. *have* 2. *hast* 3. *has* Plur. 1. 2. 3. *have*. Conj. sing. 1. 2. 3. *have*. Plur. 1. 2. 3. *have*.

Pret. ind. sing. 1. *had*. 2. *hadst* 3. *had*. Plur. 1. 2. 3. *had*. Conj. sing. 1. 2. 3. *had*. Plur. 1. 2. 3. *had*.

Imperat. *have*. Partic. 1. *having*. 2. *had*. Inf. *have*.

Old-English offers in the present the indicative form *habbe*, *habbest*, *habbep*, plur. *habbep*, *hap* &c., also *han* in all persons, and alongside thereof *have*, *havest*, *haveth*. Plur. *haveth*; in the conj. sing. *habbe*, *have*. Plur. *habben*, *han*. In the imperfect *hevede*, *hevedest* &c. *heveden* are old alongside of *havede* &c. and *hadde*, *haddest* &c., *hadden*. To these forms the others correspond. *H* is also sometimes cast off in Old-English: *aveden* (Havelok 164). Anglosaxon also possessed a conjugation contracted with the negation *ne*: *nābbe*, *nafast* &c., still found in Old-English: *nevede* (DAME SIRIZ p. 2.) In Modern-English the stem of *have* is sometimes partially or wholly thrown out in rapid speech after vowels, as well as in poetry, as in *I've*, *she'd*, *thou'st*, *thou'dst* and the like. But nothing is more familiar than the provincial usage of *a* for *have*. Compare: *She might a been a grandam as she died* (SHAKESPEARE *Love's L. L.* 5, 2.). The conjunctive forms without *est* in the second person are already disapproved by modern grammarians; even in the older language the conjunctive is often not distinguished from the indicative: *If thou haddest* (SKELTON I. 145).

In Modern-English the compound *behāve* is regular, wherein *a* is lengthened, preterite and participle *behāved*, Anglosaxon *be-habban*, *tenere*, *cingere*.

2. A number of verbs, whose stem ends in a single *d*, wholly cast off the suffix in the preterite and perfect participle. The *d* is always preceded either by a long vowel: *ēe*, *ēa*, *i*, or by a short one: *ē*, *ea*, *i*. They are mostly such as cast out a connecting vowel in the preterite in Anglosaxon after a syllable originally long or lengthened by position (with the change of *dj* into *dd*). In English the long vowel become short in the preterite and participle.

With a long vowel:

blēed; *blēd*, *blēd*. Anglosaxon *blēdan*; *blēdde*; *blēded*. Old-English *bleden*; *bledde*; *bled*.

brēed; *brēd*; *brēd*. Anglosaxon *brēdan*; *brēdde*; *brēded*. Old-English *breden*; *bredde*; *bred*.

fēd; *fēd*; *fēd*. Anglosaxon *fēdan*; *fēdde*; *fēded*. Old-English *fedēn*; *fedde*; *fed*.

spēd; *spēd*; *spēd*. Anglosaxon *spēdan*; *spēdde*; *spēded*. Old-English *speden*; *spedde*; *sped*.

lēad; *lēd*; *lēd*. Anglosaxon *lēdan*; *lēdde*; *lēded*. Old-English *leden*; *ledde*; *ladde*; *led*, *lad*.

rēad; *rēad*; *rēad*. Anglosaxon *rēdan*; *rēdde*; *rēded*, *legere*, even in Anglosaxon confounded with the strong verb *rædan*, *suadere*, *dare consilium*. Old-English *reden*; *redde*, *radde*; *red*, *rad*; Robert of Gloucester has the forms *radde*, *rad* in the meaning of *consilium dare*.

hide; *hid*; *hid*. Anglosaxon *hȳdan*; *hȳdde*; *hȳded*. Old-English *hiden*, *huden*; *hidde*, *hudde*; *hid*, *hud*, also *hedde*, see Halliwell s. v.

This verb has also preserved a strong participle *hidden*, by false analogy to *ride*, *chide* &c., so that it might be reckoned strong.

be-tide; *be-tid*; *be-tid*. Anglosaxon *tīdjan*; *tīdede* (?); *tīded*, *contingere*. Old-English *tiden*; *tidde*; *tid*, *contingere*. The compound was likewise in use in Old-English. The Modern-English regular verb *tide* &c. (even in Shakspeare) is derived from the English substantive *tide* (Anglosaxon *tīd*, *tempus*), therefore in fact the same word, since *tīdjan* comes from *tīd*. The form *be-tided* is also cited as the preterite of *betide*.

O'd-English preserved more words of this sort with a (Modern-English) long vowel, as *aweden*, Anglosaxon *avēdan*; *avēdde*; *avēded*, *insanire*, compare *avedde* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *awede* (HALLIWELL s. v.); *greden*, Anglosaxon *grædan*; *grædde*; *græded* (?), whence *gredde*, *gradde*; *gred*, *grad* and even the strong form *gradden* (Anglosaxon *græden*?) was in use. Also *heden*, Anglosaxon *hedan*; *hēdde*; *hēded*, *custodire*, now *headed*, seems to have been often confounded by moderns with *hide*: the participle *hed* is still provincial. The participle of *enshield* is in Shakspeare *enshiēd*, with a long vowel, instead of *enshielded*, Anglosaxon *scildan*, *scilde*; *scilded*.

With a short vowel:

shed; *shed*; *shed*. Anglosaxon only as a strong verb *sceddan*; *scōd*, *sceōd*; *scaden*, *effundere*. In Old-English *schedde* is found as a preterite in Robert of Gloucester, *schedez* = *pours* in Sir Gawayne. It mingles in English with the Anglosaxon *scādan*, *secādan*; *sceōd*; *scaden*, *sceaden*, *separare*, *dividere*, whence still in the North of England *shed*, *separare*, *dividere*. Old-English *sheden*; *shad*; *shad*.

shred; *shred*; *shred*. Anglosaxon *screādjan*; *screādōde*; *screādōd*, *praesequare*. I find the Old-English participle *shrede* in the *Morte Arthure* in Halliwell s. v. All participles of this class often have an inorganic *e* at the end.

spread; *spreud*; *spread*. Anglosaxon *sprædan*; *sprædde*; *spræded*; Old-English *spreden*; *spredde*, *spradde*; *spred*, *sprad*; *spredd*, *spradd*, — *ysprode* (SKELTON I. 146. in Rhyme).

stead, *be-stead* (obsolete); *bestead*; *bestead*. Anglosaxon has only the paronymous substantive *stede*, *locus*, *statio*; the Old-norse a verb *stedja*, *statuere*, *firmare*. In Old-English we find

sted, stad and often bested, bestad, bestadde = situated, circumstanced, by later writers also = distressed, as a participle. Compare the Highdutch *bestellt*. The infinitive *sted* = to stop stands in the Towneley Mysteries p. 6.

rid; *rid*; *rid*. Anglosaxon *hreddan*; *hredde*; *hreded*, *eripere*, *rapere*. Compare Swedish *rädda*. The older language has *red* = separate, clear, as in Old-Scotch; English = *rid* down to the sixteenth century: It did not *red* my life (GAULFRIDO AND BARNARDO 1570), and so still dialectically, for instance, in Lancashire.

Modern-English also offers *wed* for *wedded*: In Syracuse was I born; and *wed* Unto a woman (SHAKSP. Com. of Err 1, 1.) In Skelton stands the participle *wed* l. 150 alongside of *wedded* l. 201. — Another remnant appears to be *adread*, which could not be a compound of the substantive *dread*. The Anglosaxon strong verb *andrædan*, *on-drædan*; *-dræd*; *-dræden* is in the Old-English: *dreden*; *dredde*, *dradde*; *dred*, *drad*; the participle *adred*, *adrad* frequently occurs in Old-Scotch and English. The verb has already passed into the weak from *dreden*; *dradde*; *drad* in Robert of Gloucester.

3. The Anglosaxon, after the final hard consonants *p*, *t*, *x* (*hs*), sometimes also *s*, in the verbal stem, changed the suffix *de* into *te*, in some also *ed* into *t*. Of two like consonants in the verbal stem, as also before the suffix *de* one, was thrown out; but instead of *ct*, *ht* arose, before which also a change of vowel appeared. English early extended further the change of *d* into *t*, so that now also after *f* (*ve*) of the stem, after *s* generally (in Old-English also after *sh*), as well as after *m*, *n*, *l*, *r*, the *t* instead of *d* appeared. Many of the verbs belonging here have also the regular inflection, which is stated in the notes. A number of them has passed from the strong into the weak form, of which some have been cited under the last class. We have here to distinguish the final sound in English.

- a) Verbs with final labial letters, liquids and *s* with a long vowel in English, commonly also in the Anglosaxon stem. The vowel is shortened in the preterite and participle.

keep; *kept*; *kept*. Anglosaxon *cēpan*, *cȳpan*; *cēpte*; *cēped*. Old-English *kepen*; *kepte*; *kept*.

weep; *wep*; *wep*. Anglosaxon *wēpan*; *weóp*; *wōpen*, strong form. Old-English *wepen*; *wep*. Yet strong forms are also found: sing. *wep*, plur. *wepe* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), particularly in the participle *biwope*, *biwopin*, *biwopen*; see Halliwell s. v. *wep* in the preterite is still dialectical.

sleep; *slept*; *slept*. Anglosaxon *slāpan*, *slāpan*; *slēp*; *slāpen*, *slāpen*, strong form. Old-English *slepen*; sing. *slep*, plur. *slepe*. *aslopen* still in Middleton l. 257. But also alongside thereof the weak form *slepte*, with *slep* even in Rob. of Gloucester, as well as with *sleep* in Piers Ploughman.

creep; *crept*; *crept*. Anglosaxon *creōpan*; sing. *creāp*. plur. *crupon*; *crophen* strong form. Old-English *crepen*; sing. *crope*, plur. *crophen*; *crophen*, alongside of which the weak form *crepte* is in use.

sweep; swept; swept, leans upon the Anglosaxon strong verb svāpan; sveóp; svapen, verrere, beside which another: svīpan; sing. svāp, plur. svīpon; svipen, circumagi, and a weak one: svipjan; svipôde; svipôd, flagellare, stand.

The form sweep seems unknown to Old-English; it has the verb swappen; swapte, also swapped; alongside of swyppen = to move rapidly. Modern-English still possesses the verbs swap, swop with a different shade of meaning.

leap; leapt; leapt. Anglosaxon hleápan; hleóp; hleapen a strong verb. Old-English lepen; leep, lope; lopen, along with the weak form lepte; lepte.

Instead of lepte we also write læpt; Smart claims leaped, as in Shakspeare, but with a short vowel. The infinitive lope, loup and the participle lopen also occur dialectically alongside of the strong preterite.

leave; left; left. Anglosaxon lēfan, lýfan; lēfde; lēfed, permittere. Old-English leven; lefte, lafte; left, left; also in the same sense as a compound beleven, bileven; belefte, belafte; belaft, also beleved.

The compound believe, from the same stem, Anglosaxon gelēfan, credere, follows the general rule in English and has believed; the Old-English uses the simple leven; leved with the meaning credere.

reave, be-reave; reft; reft. Anglosaxon reáfjan, be-reáfjan; reáfôde; reáfôd. Old-English reven; refte, rafte; reft, raft, also be-reved.

Webster writes *bereaved* and *bereft*. The simple form reave is still in use, especially in the form *reft*: The only living thing he could not hate Was *reft* at once (L. BYRON). Since Time has *reft* whate'er my soul enjoy'd (ID.) and often. In this verb a interchange of *f* with *h* (*gh*) took place: His bemis bryzte Weren me *birauzte* thorow the cloudy mone (LYDGATE in Halliwell s. v.); as still in Shakspeare: This staff of honour *raught* (2 Henry VI. 2, 3.).

cleave; cleft; cleft. Anglosaxon cleófan; sing. cleáf, plur. clufon; cloven. Old-English cleven; sing. cleef, clef, clafe, plur. cloven; cloven. The verb still has the strong forms clove; cloven. The form cleave is obsolete.

The verb belongs to the sixth class of strong verbs; Shakspeare has the strong and the weak forms beside each other. The form cloven is still frequently found, not only as an adjective, as Webster asserts: How many a time *have I cloven* . . . The wave all roughen'd (L. BYRON). Webster also cites the participial form cleaved; another form clofyd stands in Halliwell.

lose; lost; lost. Anglosaxon leósan; sing. leás, plur. luron; loren. Old-English lesen; sing. (lees?) 2. pers. lore, plur. loren (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); loren, lorn, lore and lost.

In Modern-English the participle lorn in lasslorn, forsaken by one's beloved, and in forlorn, from the Anglosaxon forleósan, has been preserved. The infinitive lese is still found in Jack Jugler p. 9. and a preterite sing. leste, plur. lesten, in the fifteenth century in a manuscript in Halliwell s. v. lesten.

drēam; drēamt; drēamt. Danish drömme, Lowdutch drömen,

compare Anglosaxon drēman; drēmde; drēmed, jubilate. Old English dremen; dremte; ydremed (PIERS PLOUGHM.); dremels

Alongside of drēamt the regular form drēamed is in use, but is, according to Smart, less common. The spelling dremt is still in use in the seventeenth century.

mēan; mēant; mēant. Anglosaxon mēnan; mēnde; mēned Old-English still in the double meaning of to mean and to complain: menen; mente and mened (PIERS PLOUGHM.).

lēan; lēant; lēant. Anglosaxon hlinjan; hlinōde; hlinōd? or perhaps hlænan; hlænde; hlæned, for which the meaning to lere is presumed. Old-English lenen, of which I have found no further form in Old-English, which would nevertheless mix with others. May the Old-English lenden = to tarry be the same word?

The regular form lēaned for preterite and participle is old; the shortened form seems to be getting gradually out of use. According to Webster it belongs more to conversation than to writing. Smart cites lēant as frequently used in the preterite.

fēel; felt; felt. Anglosaxon fēlan; fēlde; fēled. Old-English felen; felde (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER, WEBER), plur. feliden (WILCLIFFE), also felte; yuelde (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER).

kneel; knelt; knelt. Compare Anglosaxon cneōvjan, genuflectere, Danish knæle; the Old-French genoiller, genoler might also connect the two forms. Old-English knelen; kneled and knelte (PERCY Rel. p. 45. I. and II.).

kneel has also the regular form kneeled, which, according to Webster is the better, according to Smart is obsolescent. Shakespeare uses kneeled.

dēal; dēalt; dēalt. Anglosaxon dēlan; dælde; dæled. Old-English delen; delde, delede, delte, dalte; deled (the forms with *d* especially in Rob. of Gloucester).

deal has also the regular form dealed particularly appropriated to the participle. Smart does not cite it at all.

The older language had other verbs of this sort with a vowel originally long, as reap; reapt (compare: Who has not all his corn reapt BLOUNT'S Glossographie ed. 1681. p. 398.), from the Anglosaxon rīpan, sing. rāp, plur. ripon, ripen; whereof the dialects preserve strong forms: rip (Kent); rep (Essex), rop (several dialects); heap; heapt, Anglosaxon heāpjan; heāpōde! heāpōd; steep; steep, compare the Old-norse steypa, fundere, obruere, which seem to be distinguished only graphically, without shortening of the vowel, from reaped &c. as we even find look, lookt, Anglosaxon lōcjan, written. On the other hand the Old-English demen; dempte; dempt belonged here Scottish deme; demit, dempt, Anglosaxon dēman; dēmd; dēmed judicare.

- b) Verbs with a short vowel of the stem and a final *p, s, x, n* /, mostly with an original and commonly a preserved double consonant in the stem, formerly frequently changed *d* into *t* in modern times few have remained in general use or at least are acknowledged by lexicographers. Some grammarians reject all forms of this sort, which they only permit in every day speaking and writing. All such verbs also have the regular

form in *ed*. Verbs in *ss*, *ll* lose one of the two consonants before *t*.

Among the verbs in *p* we hardly find another cited than *dip*, *dipt*, Anglosaxon *dyppan*; *dyppte*; *dyppt*. Poets and prosewriters exhibit in abundance verbal forms like *dropt*, *stept*, *stopt*, *whipt*, *tript* &c.

Of those in *ss* are *bless*, *blest*, Anglosaxon *blæssjan*; *blæssode*, *blæssöd*; *pass*, *past*, Old-French *passer*; *toss*, *tost* (whether related to the Anglosaxon *tæsan*, *vellere*?); yet *prest*, *crost*, *exprest*, *deprest*, *possest* &c. are frequent enough. Verbs ending in *rs* also have similar forms: *curst*, *nurst* in Goldsmith, Byron and others.

Of verbs in *x* *mix*, *mirt*, Anglosaxon *miscan*, *miscete*, *misced* are stated to be still current. We also find *fixt*, *vext* and others.

Among those in *n* we still find *pen*, *pent*, compare the Anglosaxon *onpinnjan*, *-öde*, *öd*; *learn*, *learnt*, Anglosaxon *leornjan*, *-öde*, *-öd*, Old-England *lernen*, and *burn*, *burnt*, Anglosaxon *brennan*, *bernan*; *-de*; *ed*, alongside of *beornan*, *byrnan*; sing. *bearn* (*bran*), plur. *burnon* (*brunnon*); *bornen* (*brunnen*), Old-English *bernen*, *brennen*; *barnde*, *brande*, *brende*; *barnd*, *brenned*, *brent*, *burned*.

Some verbs in *ll* are likewise still thus in use: *dwell*, *dwelt*, Anglosaxon *dveljan*, *dvellan*; *dvelede*, *dvealde*; *dveled*, *dveald*, *errare*, but the Old-norse *dvelja*, *mor:ri*. *smell*, *smelt*, compare Lowdutch *smölen*, *smellen*. *spill*, *spilt*, Anglosaxon *spillan*; *spilde*; *spilled*; *spell*, *spelt*, Anglosaxon *spelljan*, *-öde*, *-öd*.

Verbs with a final *p* and *s* are accordingly found most frequently in Modern-English; they attach themselves primarily to Anglosaxon forms. Of the use of *t* after *s* the Anglosaxon *cyssan*; *cyste*; *cyssed*, Old-English *kissen*; *kessen*; *kussen*; *kiste*, *kuste*; *kist* &c. is an instance. The appending of *t* to *n* and particularly *l* is also familiar to Old-English. Yet *de*, *ed* and *te*, *t* often interchange with one another; compare: *duelled* and *duelte* (MacDUFF. p. 44.), *cleped* and *clept* (MacDUFF. p. 73.), *tilde* and *tilte* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN.); as also with a final labial: *worschiped* and *worschipte* (p. 66.). — Derivative forms like *ravisht*, *etablisht*, *husht*, for instance in Chaucer, have not been preserved in Modern-English. — After *r* the old language has likewise sometimes *t*, for instance in the verb *garen*, *garren*: *garte*, *facere*, Anglosaxon *girjan*, *parare*, Old-norse *göra*, *facere*.

- c) Among the verbs whose stem in Anglosaxon ended in *c* (also *g*), which become *h* before *t*, a multitude has been preserved in English, now ending in *k*, *g*, a dental *ch* and a guttural softened into *y*. Since in Anglosaxon they changed their stem vowel in the preterite and participle into *ea* or *o*, they have produced the transmutation of it into *ou*, *au* in English, which appear before the *gh* which has arisen from *h*, Old-English also *ȝ* (*broȝte*, *wroȝte*, *roȝte*, *caȝte*). In Old-English *c* in the infinitive has been mostly changed into *ch*.

think; *thought*; *thought*. Anglosaxon *pencēan*, *pencan*; *peahte*, *pohte*; *peat*, *poht* with *n* cast out at the same time. Old-English *pencnen*, *bipencnen* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *thynken*; *thoghte*,

thoughte; thought, thought. Its forms have partly coincided with those of the following verb.

methinks; methought. Anglosaxon *pyncēan, pyncan; me pynced* (*pyncð*); *me pūhte* (*puhte*); *pūht* (*puht*). Old-English *me thin-keth; me thoughte*.

bring; brought; brought. Anglosaxon *bringan; brohte; broht* here also *n* has been thrown out. Old-English *bringen, broghte, broughte; broght, brought*.

work; wrought; wrought. Anglosaxon *vyrcean, vycēan; vorhte; gevorht*, but also metathetically *vrohte; gevroht*. Old-English *werken, werchen; wroghte, wroughte; wroght, wrought*.

This verb has also in Modern-English the regular English form of preterite and participle *worked*.

seek; sought; sought. Anglosaxon *sēcean, sēcan, sēcān; sōhte; sōht*. Old-English *seken, sechen; soughte; sought*,

beseech, is a compound of *seek; besought; besought*. Anglosaxon *bisēcan, adire*, but has assumed in the infinitive and present the second of the Old-English forms cited; Old-English *biseken, bisechen, besechen; bisoughte; bisought*.

For *beseech* the form *beseek* in Shakspeare 2 HENRY VI. 2, 4. It is still in use in the North of England. We also find the regular Modern-English preterite *beseched* (SHAKSP. Hamlet 3, 1.). Even the Anglosaxon knows the participle *geondsēced* alongside of *sōht*.

reach; raught; raught. Anglosaxon *ræcan; ræhte; ræht, extendere, porrigere and recjan, reccan; reahte, rehte; reaht, reht, extendere, numerare, interchanged with one another even in Anglosaxon. Old-English rechen; raughte; raught and yreight*.

This verb has also passed into the regular form of the preterite and participle *reached*; in Shakspeare *raught* and *reached* stand alongside of each other, the former whereof is now obsolete. We must moreover distinguish the verb from the Old-English *reccen; roghte, roughthe; roughed*, Anglosaxon *rēcan; rōhte; rōht, curare, which lives on as reck in Modern-English*.

teach; taught; taught. Anglosaxon *tæcan; tæhte; tæht*. Old-English *techen; taughte, taghte* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN); *taught*.

catch; caught; caught. From the Old-norse *kāka* = *attractare*? Old-English *cacchen; caughte; caught*; also with *ou*: *becought* (BEVES OF HAMTOUN p. 37.).

The preterite and participle also have the form *catched*, which is in use even in the sixteenth century: *Fansy hath cachyd in a flye net This noble man* (SKELTON l. 238.). None are so surely *caught*, when they are *catch'd* (SHAKSP. Love's L. L. 4, 2.). The verb must be of Germanic origin; in Rob. of Gloucester stands the form *caste*.

buy; bought; bought. Anglosaxon *bycgan; bohte; boht*. Old-English *biggen, buggen, byen; boughte; bought*.

A compound of *buy* is *aby, abie*, occurring in Spenser and Shakspeare, properly, to pay, which is erroneously made to spring from *abide*. It is familiar to Old-English: *abiggen, abuggen, abien; aboughte; abought*, Anglosaxon *abycgan, redimere*.

Old-English has a number of similarly conjugated verbs, single forms whereof have been preserved in Modern-English. Here belong:

strecchen; straughte; straught, also *streight*, to stretch; Old-Scotch *strecche*, *streik*; *straucht*; *straucht*, Anglosaxon *streccan*; *strehte*; *streht*, perhaps also *streahte*; *streaht*. Therewith is found outstraught = stretched out. The verb is mixed with the Latin form; hence perhaps *forstraught* and *bestraught* = mad, distracted, whence in the same meaning *bestraught* in Shakspeare, as well as *distraught*, which is still met with among moderns. Compare also: I am *straught* = distracted; je suis *enragé* (PALSGRAVE 1530). The Modern-English stretch follows the general rule.

**smecchen; smaughte* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 98.). Modern-English *smack*; Anglosaxon *smacjan*, -ôde, -ôd, or *smeccan*, *smeete*, *smeced*, is falsely assimilated to similar forms

awecchen; awahte (HALLIWELL s. v.), *aweightte* (KYNK ALISACNDER 5858), to wake. Anglosaxon *âveccan*; *âveahte*, *âvehte*; *âveaht*, *âveht*. The Modern-English weak awaked belongs to an other Anglosaxon weak form: *âvacjan*, -ôde, -ôd.

fecchen, only in Western dialects *faught*, else Old-English *fette*; *fet*, to fetch, Anglosaxon *feccan*; *fehhte*; *fehht*? *feahhte*; *feahht*? Shakspeare still has the participle *fet*. The casting out of the *c(h)* occurring here is in use in other cases also in Old-English. A primitive *c* and *g* namely are frequently cast out after *n* before *t*; hence *blenchen*; *blente*; *blent*, Modern-English *blench*; Middle-Highdutch *blenken*, to move hither and thither; *drenchen*, *drente*, *dreynte*; *drent*, *dreynt*, Modern-English *drench*, Anglosaxon *drencan*; *drencte*; *drenced*; *quenchen*; *quente*, *queinte*; *queint*, Modern-English *quench*, Anglosaxon *cvencan*; *cvencte*; *cvenced*, *extinguere*. — *mengen*; *mente*, *meinte*; *ment*, *meint*, compare Modern-English *mingle*, Anglosaxon *mengan*; *mengde*; *menged*, still in use in the North of England; **sprengen*, *besprengen*; *sprente*, *spreinte* (also *sprengde*); *sprent*, *spreint*, compare Modern-English *sprinkle*, Anglosaxon *sprengan*, *sprencan*; *sprengde*, *sprencde*; *sprenged*, *sprenced*. This verb also occurs with the meaning *leap*, mixed with the strong verb *springan*. Compare Halliwell v. *sprent*.

lacchen, lakken; laughte, laught, to catch, seize, Modern-English *latch*, which is often mistaken. Anglosaxon *leccan*, *læccan*; *lēhte*, *lēhte*; *leht*, *lāht*, *prehendere*, also *læcan*; *læhte*; *lēht*, *arripere*, *lædere*, related to *lack* = to want.

suacchen, snacken (compare Halliwell v. *snack*); *snaughte; snaught* compare Halliwell v. *snaught*), Modern-English *snatch*, used in the fifteenth century, and still as *snack* in the North of England, related to the Highdutch *schnappen*, and to the Anglosaxon *nebb* with the passage of the labial into the guttural. Compare Old-norse *snackr* = *snap*, *parcior pastio*, belonging to *snapa*, *captare escam*; and the Lowdutch *snacken* and *snabbeln*, to *prate*.

picchen, piken; pihte, pighte; ypiht (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), to throw, Modern-English *pitch*, compare Anglosaxon *pyccan*; *pycte*; *pyced*, *pungere*. *Pight* still belongs to Modern-English, but is obsolete; Shakspeare has *pight* along with *pitched*.

siken, sighte, Modern-English *sigh* and *sike* still dialectically, for example, in Derbyshire. Anglosaxon *sican*; sing. *sâc*, plur. *sicon*; *sican* a strong verb; *sicettan* occurs as a weak verb in Anglosaxon.

shrichen, shrighite. Modern-English *shriek*, Old-norse *shrikja*, *minurire* of birds, compare Anglosaxon *scric*, *turdus*. The preterite *shright* was still in use in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries (TURBEVILLE's Ovid 1567, f. 60). The verb *shrike* is quoted by Palsgrave.

- d) Verbal stems ending in *d*, preceded by an *n*, *l*, rarely *r*, have in English often cast off the *d* of the stem, and have assumed *t* as an inflective letter in the preterite and participle; even in Anglosaxon verbs in *nd*, *ld*, *rd* lost the *d* of the stem in the preterite before the suffix *de*. The change of *de* into *te* and the transfer of *t* to the participle instead of *ed* is very old in English, yet the forms in *de*, *ed* (*d*) frequently interchange with those in *te*, *t*; in the latter case *e* is often thrown off in the preterite, as it is added in the participle. Rob. of Gloucester frequently has forms like *senden*; *sende*; *send* &c. We chiefly give the Old-English with *t*. Modern-English, along with the preserved *t*, has frequently the regular inflective forms in *ed*.
lend; *lent*; *lent*. Anglosaxon *lænan*; *lænde*; *læned*. Old-English *lenen*; *lente* (*lened*); *lent*.

In this verb, which does not belong to those originally ending in *nd*, *d* has, from a false analogy, been transferred to the stem. According to Halliwell *len* = to lend is still in use.

rend; *rent*; *rent*. Anglosaxon *hrendan*; *hrende*; *hrended*, also *rendan* &c. Old-English *renden*; *rente*; *rent*.

bend; *bent*; *bent*. Anglosaxon *bendan*; *bende*; *bended*. Old-English *benden*; *bente* (*bende*); *bent*.

The preterite and participle also have the form *bended*, not cited by Smart, Shakspeare has *bent* alongside of *bended*; Maundeville uses *bended* for *bound* p 276. (from the Anglosaxon *bindan*); in Old-Scotch *bend* stands for the Old-French *bondir*

wend, properly to turn; *went*; — Anglosaxon *wendan*; *wende*; *wended*. Old-English *wenden*; *wende*, *wente*, *wended*, *went*.

The preterite *went* is used in Modern-English for the defective preterite from to go Old-English also *yede*; see Irregular verbs. The verb, now obsolete, but still occurring in poetry, as *wended*.

send; *sent*; *sent*. Anglosaxon *sendan*; *sende*; *sended*. Old-English *senden*; *sente*; *sent*.

spend; *spent*; *spent*. Anglosaxon *spendan*; *spende*; *spended*. Old-English *spenden*; *spente*; *spent*.

shend; *shent*; *shent*. Anglosaxon *scendan*; *scende*; *scended*. Old-English *shenden*; *shente*; *shent*.

Of other verbs in *nd* inflective forms of this sort hardly occur any more. The verb *blend*. Anglosaxon *blendan*; *blende*; *blended*, Old-English *blenden*; *blente*; *blent*, often has the participle *blent*, as in Shakspeare. The verb *hend* with the preterite and participle *hent*, to take, seize, in Spenser, Shakspeare and Fairfax, seems to be a false formation. The Anglosaxon fundamental form is *hentan*; *hente*; *hented*, Old-English *henten*; *hente*; *hent*, although an Old-norse form *henda* certainly stands alongside of it.

The following verbs in *ld* and *rd* also have all the common inflection *ed*.

build; *built*; *built*, compare the Old-Highdutch *biladôn*, Old-English *beelden*, *belden*, *bilden*; *bilte* &c.; *bilt* also to protect. Further *beild*, *biel* in modern dialects still means, to shelter, as it were, to take under cover.

builded is rarely met with.

gild; gilt; gilt. Anglosaxon *gyldan*; *gylde-le*, *gylded*, *deaurare*. Old-English *gilden*; *gilte*; *gilt*.

According to Smart *gilded* is the more usual form. Palsgrave cites *gyllted* for *gilt*; *gilted* stands also in Baruch VI. 7. *forgyllten* (HARROWING OF HALL p. 25.) is the strong participle from the Anglosaxon *gildan retribuere* (Anglosaxon *golden*).

geld; gelt; gelt. Old-norse *gilda*. Danish *gilde*, *castrare*. Old-English *gelden*; *gelte*; *gelt*.

gird; girt; girt. Anglosaxon *gyrdan*; *gyrde*; *gyrded*. Old-English *girden*; *girt*; *girt*, *ygurd* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER).

The meaning to *strike* (*gyrd* of in the Towneley Myst.), in Shakespeare to *goad*, which belongs to this word (in Spenser metathetically *gride*, *gyrde*) especially in Old-English, seems to point to another stem; compare the Anglosaxon *gyrd-vite*, *virgae poena*.

- e) A considerable number of verbs with a final *t* in the stem have in Modern-English thrown off all inflection in the preterite and participle, so that now the infinitive, present, preterite and perfect participle are alike. They rest upon the Anglosaxon forms, in which the suffix of the preterit *de* after a *t* of the stem was likewise changed into *te*, when two *t* stood beside each other, the one of which, however, often was cast out with a preceding third consonant; compare the Anglosaxon *grētan*, *grētte*; *cnyttan*, *cnytte*; *hentan*, *hente*; *blæstan*, *blæste*. The participial form took *ed*, but was early assimilated, even in Old-English, to the preterite, with regard to *t* instead of *d*, to which the Anglosaxon gave support by contractions, as *sett* instead of *seted* &c. The verbs belonging here mostly have a short vowel in the stem; the few with a long vowel usually shorten it in the preterite and participle. Old-English distinguishes the inflective forms of the preterite and of the participle by *te* and *t*. In Modern-English many have the suffixes *ed*, *ed* alongside of the verbal form, which has suffered apocope; others have wholly abandoned the latter. But some strong and Romance verbs have come over to these.

slit; Anglosaxon strong verb *slitan*; sing. *slāt*, plur. *sliton*; *sliten*, *findere*; beside it is found a weak verbal form: *slætan*; *slætte*; *slætted*, *scindere*, Old-English *slytte*, infinitive in Chaucer 11572.; we often meet the strong participle *slitten*.

The inflective form *slitted* occurs, but is little used.

spit; Anglosaxon *spittan*; *spitte*; *spitted*. Old-English *spitten*; *spitte*; *spit*, *speat*.

This verb was apparently early treated as a strong verb: preterite *spat*, participle *spitten*. Both are still in use, but seldom; Wycliffe has *bespat*. Perhaps a mixture with *spātan*; *spātte*; *spāted* lies at the bottom.

split; Dänish *splitte*, Hollandish *splyten*. In Old-English *splitten* has not crossed me; *splatt* stands as an infinitive (SIR EGLAMOUR OF ARTOIS 490.).

Splitted rarely occurs; Smart does not cite the form at all.

knit; Anglosaxon *cnyttan*; *cnytte*; *cnyted* (or *cnytan*, com-

pare Old-norse knýta, Danish knytte). Old-English knitten; knitte; knit, knet — knyt (SKELTON I. 144.).

knitted is likewise in use in the preterite and participle.

quit; Old-French quiter, cuitier. Old-English quiten, quytten; quitte; quit.

The form *quitted* is now the more common. Formerly *acquit* was used without a suffix (SHAKESPEARE *Merry Wiv.* 1, 3. *Rich.* III. 5, 4.). In Shakspeare there is also *requit*: Which hath *requit* it (*Temp.* 3, 3.), which without reason is assigned, not to the verb *requite*, but to *requit*, both in point of fact going back to the same Old-English form.

hit. Old-norse hitta. Danish hitte. Old-English hitten; hitte; hit.

let. Anglosaxon a strong verb: lætan; leót, lêt; læten. Old-norse lâta. In Old-English it still follows the strong conjugation: laten, leten; sing. leet, plur. leten (PIERS PLOUGHM.); leten, letten. Yet the weak form of the preterite is also found *lette*.

In the weak Old-English form this verb partly coincides with the quite different *let*, Anglosaxon letjan, lettian, tardare, which however is commonly letten; letted, letted in Old-English, but also occurs with the preterite *lette*, Anglosaxon lettede and *lette*.

wet. Anglosaxon vætan; vætte; væted. Old-English weten; wette; wet.

The preterite and participle are also still *wetted*.

whet. Anglosaxon hvettan; hvette; hvetted. Old-English whetten; whette; whet.

Preterite and participle *whetted* are now preferred; Smart no longer cites *whet* for these.

set. Anglosaxon settan; sette; seted and sett. Old-English setten; sette; sett, set.

The participle *setten*, *seten* is erroneously given to the Old-English verb, since that belongs to the strong verb *sitten*.

sweat; the preterite and participle is also spelt *swet*. Anglosaxon svætan; svætte; svæted. Old-English sweten; swette, swatte, swotte; swet (swete).

Preterite and participle also have the form *sweated*. The forms with an obscure vowel are still found in Modern-English, *swate* in Thomson, *swat* in the popular dialects of England and Scotland. They seem to have been the occasion of the formation of a strong participle, which is represented as *sweaten* in Shakspeare *Macb.* 4, 1.

put. Danish putte, to stand still, compare Cymric *pwrtian* = to poke. Old-English putten, puten; putte; put.

Old-Scotch also has a strong participle *putten* (PERCY *Rel.* p. 30. II.). Compare *Dial. of Craven* II. p. 62.

shut. Anglosaxon scyttan; scytte; scytted, obserare. Old-English shetten; shette; shet (shette).

cut. Old-norse kuta, cultellis (kuti) pungere, compare Modern-Highdutch küterei. Old-English kuten (kutten, kyten?); kitte (PIERS PLOUGHM. and CHAUCER); kut, cut.

In Old-English forms in *ed* are sometimes found: Preterite *hottede* Lydgate in Halliwell, who quotes *cutted* as a form, as it seems, still familiar. In Northern dialects there is the strong participle *cutten*.

hent, to take, see p. 345. The verb is obsolete.

wont; belongs to the Anglosaxon *wunjan*, -ôde, -ôd, manere, habitare, whence the Old-English *wonen*, *wonnen*; *wonede*; *woned*, *wont*; still in Milton: He *wons*.

Wont as an infinitive, has proceeded from the substantive participle *wont*, which now is *wonted*: in the sixteenth century we find the preterite *wonted* (*Jocasta* 1668, p. 143, in *Four Old Plays* Camb. 1848.). The participle *wonted*, stands also, amongst others, in Shakespeare for accustomed, as also *wont* and *woned* (*Macbeth*, p. 105, *Piers Ploughman*, p. 306), *ywoned* (*Rob of Gloucester* II. 377.). The old verb is still in use in the north of England in the form *wun*, *wunne*.

hurt. Old-French *hurter*. Cymric *hyrddio*, *hyrddu*, *hyrthu* = to push. Old-English *hurten*; *hurtē*; *hurt*. Compare also *hurtelen*. Modern-English *hurtle*.

lift, in Highdutch *lîften* instead of *lichten*, with interchange of the guttural and labial; Old-norse *lypta*, Swedish *lyfta*, Danish *løfte*, on the other hand Anglosaxon *lihtan*; *lihte*; *lihted*, *levare*; whence the English *light*, to step down. But compare also the Anglosaxon *lyft*, *aer*; *lyften*, *excelsus*, Old-norse *lopt*.

In Old-English, as in many dialects *lift* is used in the sense of to aid, assist. The modern language has *lifted* in the preterite and participle. In Shakespeare there stands the preterite *lift*, alongside of *lifted*.

cast, Old-norse *kasta*, Danish *kaste*. Old-English *casten*; *caste*; *cast*.

The participle *casted* stands alongside of *cast* in Shakespeare; the northern dialects have a strong participle, as in Scotch: By the divills means, can never the divill be *casten* out (*King James Daemonologie*); popular *cassen*, *casten* in Langtoft p. 106.

cost. Old-French *coster* (*constare*). Old-English *costen*; *costed*; *costed*.

The participle *costned* (*costened*) in *Piers Ploughman* p. 13. points to a verb *costenen*, resting perhaps upon interchange. The verb *coste* = to tempt and the substantive *costning* = temptation in *Verstegan* points on the other hand to the Anglosaxon *costjan*, *costnjan*, *tentare*; *costnung*, *tentatio*.

thrust. Anglosaxon *pristjan*, -ôde, -ôd, *audere*. Old-norse *prista*, *cogere*, *urgere*, *trudere*. Old-English *thresten*; *thruste*; northern dialects have the strong participle *throssen*.

burst. Anglosaxon strong verb *bërstan*; sing. *bearst*, plur. *burston*; *borsten*. Old-English *bersten*, frequently *bresten*. Scottish *brist*; sing. *berst*, *barst*, *brast* (*brost*); plur. *brosten*, *borsten*; *brosten*, *borsen* (*Chest. Plays* II. 123.); in Northern dialects still *brosten*, *brussen*, *bursen*.

The verb has completely passed from the strong into the weak conjugation. Modern-English still knows the participle *bursten*, but which is now almost wholly obsolete. Moderns have even formed

the preterite and participle bursted See Wagner's *Gr* from Herrig p. 162.

There are but few verbs to be cited which have preserved a long vowel in the fundamental form, but to these some strong verbs which have passed over are to be reckoned.

meet; met; met. Anglosaxon *mētan; mētte; mēted.* Old-English *meten; mette; mett, met.*

fleet, has an obsolete participle *flet*. Anglosaxon *fleōtan*; sing. *fleāt*, plur. *fluton*; *floten*, compare *flet*, *flos lactis*; Old-English, as a strong verb *fleten*; *flette*; *flett*, Old-norse *fleyta*, *supernatantem liquorem demere.* Old-Scottish *fleit* = to float, to flow, to abound.

shoot; shot; shot. Anglosaxon strong verb *sceōtan*; sing. *sceāt*, plur. *scuton*; *scoten*, beside which a weak verb *scotjan*, -ōde, -ōd, *jaculari* occurs, which partly explains the weak forms. Old-English *scheten*; sing. *schet* (but also *schette*), plur. *shete*; *scho-ten* (*yssote*) (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), the preterite plur. also *shotten* (PIERS PLOUGHM.). Beside *sheten* there occurs in Old-English *shoten*.

The strong participle *shotten* is in modern times, obsolete, except used as an adjective, and is not found of the compounds *overshoot*, *outshoot*

light (compare *alight*); *lit*; *lit* for which *light* is also found, is now inflected regularly. Anglosaxon *līhtan*; *līhte*; *līhted*, *levare*, *alihtan*, *desilire* (ab equo); Old-English *lighten*; *lighte*; *light*, beside which *liten*, *lyten*; *lit*; *lit* (also *lizth* in Halliwell s. v.) = to light on, to fall on occurs. The infinitive *lite* is still in use dialectically. The participle *lit* in Shakspeare: You are *lit* into my hands (PERICL. 4. 3.).

light, likewise formerly offered the forms *lū*; *lit* Anglosaxon *līhtan*; *līhte*; *līhted*. They are obsolete.

There occur a few more verbs in *ight*, which must be assigned to this class, but retain the long vowel in the preterite and participle.

hight, intransitive, *hight*; *hight* obsolete, but still in use in poets; Anglosaxon strong verb *hātan*; *hēht*, *hēt*; *hāten*, *vocare* (the English present and participle have arisen from the old preterite). Danish *hedde*, Swedish *heta*. In Old-English transitive and intransitive: *haten*, *hoten*, *heten*; *highte*, *hatte* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *hate*, also *heet*, *het*; *hoten*, *hot*, in Scotland preterite and participle also *hecht*. Of the compound with *be*, cited as obsolete in the forms *behight*; *behot*; *behight*, there occur in Old-English *behighte*, *behote*, *behett*; *behighten*, *behoten*. Anglosaxon *behātan*, *vovere*.

Examples of *hight* are: This grisly beast, which lion *hight* by name (SHAKSPEARE *Mids. N. Dr.* 5, 1.) Father he *hight* and he was in the parish (LONGFELLOW). Childe Harold was he *hight* (L. BYRON).

dight and *bedight*; — *dight*; — *dight*; still occurs in Modern-English, particularly in the participle. Anglosaxon *dihtan*; *dihte*; *dihted*, *disponere*. Old-English *dighten*; *dighte*, *dijte*; *dight*.

Examples in Modern-English: The clouds in thousand liveries *dight* (MILTON). Storied windows richly *dight* (ib.). Three modest maidens have me *bedight* (LONGFELLOW). The Old-English *plighen*; *plighte*; *plight*, Modern-English *plight* = to pledge, Anglosaxon *plihtan*; *plihte*; *plihted*, *pliht* — is now conjugated regularly: *plighted*.

English dictionaries give to the verb *freight*, the preterite *freighted* and the participles *freighted* and *fraught*, Danish *fragte*; compare the Old-Highdutch *freht*. In fact two forms run parallel to each other here; that in *au*, which seems the older, and that in *ei*, which seems to be the younger. Both meet each other in the contracted participle *fret* (from *fraghted*), Old-English *fraughten* (*fraghten*); *fraughte*; *fraught*, *fret*.

Examples: These marchants have don *fraught* here schippes (CHAUCER 4591.). Ne jewell *fret* full of rich stones (CHAUCER Legend of Good women 1115.). *Fraghted* with pleasure (SKELTON I. 32.). All with fauour *fret* (p. 87.). Another verb has been erroneously sought in *fret* in this connection (see the strong verb *eat*); compare also the form in *ai*: Oedipus, *fraight* ful of chilling feare (JOCASTA p. 137.). The verbal form in *au* in Shakspeare (who has also the participle *fraught*). The good ship . . and The *fraughting* souls within her (TEMP. I. 2.) is wrongly assailed.

In the adjective *tight*, dialectical *taught*, *tought*, which seems to have naught to do with the Highdutch *dicht*, although the Swedish *tät*, *tätt* agrees with it in meaning, is primarily a participle, to be sought in the Anglosaxon *tyhtan*; *tyhte*; *tyhted*, *tyht*, *trahere* (compare *ontyhtan*, *excitare*, *impellere*), which may mix with the allied: *týgan*; *týgde*; *týged*, *vincire*; English *tie*.

Old-English had a considerable number of justifiable forms in *t*, which have been lost in Modern-English, as *grette*; *gret* (*greeted*), Anglosaxon *grētan*; *hette*; *het* (*heated*, whence in Shakspeare and Ben Jonson the participle *heat*), Anglosaxon *hætan*; *liste*, *leste*, *luste*, Anglosaxon *lystan*; *laste* (*lasted*), Anglos. (ge)*læstan*; *truste* (*trusted*), Anglosaxon *treōvsjan*, or rather Old-norse *traust*, *fiducia*; *reste*; *rest* (*rested*), Anglosaxon *restan*; *stente*; *stent* and *stenten* (*stinted*), Anglosaxon *stantan*; *sing. stant*, *plur. stanton*; *stanten*; beside it the weak verb *ātstentan*, *retundere*; *grunte* (*grunted*), compare the Anglosaxon *grunjan*; *sterte*, *starte*, *sturte*; *stert* (*started*), Danish *styrte*, Swedish *störta*: Up she *stert* (*preter.*) still in Skelton I. 111.; *swelte*; *swelt* (= *swooned*), Anglosaxon *sveltan*, *strong verb*, *sing. svealt*, *plur. svulton*; *svolten*, *mori*, and many more.

The Strong Conjugation.

The verbs of the English strong conjugation rest upon Anglosaxon verbs of this conjugation, some whereof are indeed no longer to be pointed out in Anglosaxon, but may be inferred from cognate tongues. Hardly a weak verb is inflected weakly in the written language, and it is probable that strong forms lie originally at the foundation of all verbs universally strong, although the transformation of weak into strong forms is not uncommon in popular dialects, and a few, as is clear from some instances cited above, have also penetrated into the written tongue.

Romance verbs have hardly ever been universally inflected strongly, although such inflection is not wholly wanting. For instance *proven* is thus inflected in Robert of Gloucester: *pe child wex & wel prof* (I. 11.); added to which Scottish authors offer the participle *proven*. Anglosaxon certainly had in legal language *prófjan*, *-óde*, *-ód*. In Modern-English *strive* seems to belong here. See below.

The number of Anglosaxon strong verbs has been already lessened in Old-English by the passing over into the weak form; in Modern-English it has been further reduced partly by complete abandonment, partly by the adoption of the weak form. But where the simple verb has preserved the strong form, it also mostly follows it in composition. An exception is formed in Modern-English by *fret*, which belongs to the Anglosaxon *ētan* (to eat). See *eat*.

A few strong verbs have in Modern-English formed weak forms beside the strong ones, which supplant the latter wholly or in part. The perfect participle has been preserved the most firmly, which also the oftenest invades weak forms. The transmutation of the vowels of the infinitive in the second and third person present of the singular, as in *ēte*, *íst*, *it*; *háte*, *hætst*, *hæted* &c., seems to have been early wholly lost in English.

As regards the vocalization of the strong verbs the infinitive and the forms of the present preserve regularly the original vowel in the form belonging to them in their transfer into English.

In Modern-English however, those verbal forms have here and there made the vowel of the preterite the standard, as *run*, Anglosaxon *rinnan*; a similar obscuration through the subsequent preterite has also been suffered by *choose*, Anglosaxon *ceósan*, and *loose*, which has become weak, Anglosaxon *leósan*, and *burst*, Anglosaxon *bēstan*, and others. Old-English preserved for a long time the vowels corresponding to the Anglosaxon.

Old-English still preserved in the preterite the primary distinction of the vocalization of the singular and of the plural, so far as it was expressed in the Anglosaxon fundamental forms. But the passing over of *a*, especially before nasals, and of *u*, into *o* soon explains the interchange of the vowels of the singular and of the plural in many preterites whose numbers are now particularly distinguished by the termination. The termination *en*, subsequently *e*, long renders the plural perceptible, till this sound also is cast off, which, on the other side, where it stands in the plural, also passes into the singular. Even in Old-English commences the general confusion of all vowels of the singular and plural, the beginning of which however is not always to be pointed out with certainty, later copyists having often forced the subsequent verbal forms upon older authors. In Modern-English sometimes the original vowel of the plural, sometimes that of the singular falls to the lot of the preterite. Both often are in use, but not with equal justification, alongside of each other, in most modern authors, where it often befalls the genuine singular form to be banished from literary usage and to be still sheltered only by the bolder poetry.

The participle of the perfect, even in Old-English, like the infinitive and other verbal forms with the suffix *en*, lost its *n*, whereby

it was assimilated to other forms of the verb in the plural, especially to the preterite. But the agreement with the preterite was often complete where the *e* was abandoned in the participle as well as in the plural and in the second person singular of the preterite. The participle was then perceivable, particularly in the prefixed *y, i* (= *ge*). When this also was thrown off, a complete similarity of form in the preterite and the participle appeared. A transfer of participial forms to the preterite was thereby sometimes rendered possible, which seems to occur in the Old-English *underfong* (Anglosaxon *fēng; fangen*); on the other hand the employment of the preterite as a participial form was supported (compare *trod; trod*, Anglosaxon *trād; trūden* and many more); an interchange which has made advances even in Modern-English, but is at present often censured by grammarians. See Murray p. 185. A few cases are touched on below.

It is also to be observed that even another *e* is frequently added to the suffix of the participle, so that we often meet forms like *sponene* (*sponen* = *spun*), *drefene* (= *driven*), *sprongene* (= *sprung*) not in the plural alone. They are particularly frequent where the *e* of the suffix is elided before *n*, for instance, in *borne, stolne, shorne, sworne, seene* (= *seen*), *drayne* (= *drawn*). The forms without *n* which have suffered apocope are indeed as frequent.

Some strong verbs have passed from one into another strong form, as will be discussed in the proper place.

Anglosaxon has distinguished essentially eight forms of conjugation of strong verbs (inclusive of the so-called reduplicative conjugations). All these forms are still represented in English, yet the first preponderates in number, whereas the only Modern-English verb of the last class (*hang*) has preserved its vowel in the present only.

In the representation of Modern-English strong verbs by their classes, we have regard not so much to the Modern-English vocalization as to the Anglosaxon and Old-English. The Old-English forms are displayed in their oldest shape, when of course the forms curtailed in their suffixes are not denied to the Old-English and the interchange of vowels in older times is not denied. That they early ran parallel with the former has been stated already. The forms now universally taken to be obsolete are marked with *.

First Class. The first Anglosaxon class of strong verbs offers in the present (and infinitive) the vowel *i* (*eo, ē*); in the preterite sing. *a* (*ea*), plur. *u*; in the perfect participle *u* (*o*). To these answer in Old-English: pres. *i* (*e*); pret. sing. *a* (*o*), plur. *o* (*ou*), part. perf. *o* (*ou*); in Modern-English: pres. *i, e*, pret. sing. and plur. *a, u, ou*, rarely *o*, part. perf. *u, ou*.

The verbal stems of this class end originally in a one reduplicated or two consonants.

1. *swim*, to swim; *swam, swum; swum*. Anglosaxon *swimman*; sing. *swam*, plur. *swummon; swummen*. Old-English *swimmen*; sing. *swam*, plur. *swommen; swommen*.

The preterite *swom*, from the Old-English *swommen*, is quite obsolete. It is to be observed that in the seventeenth century the forms in *u* were equally in use in the preterite and participle, as *swum, spun, begun, run, rung, wrung, flung, sung, stung, drunk, stunk, sunk*,

shrunk &c., all of which no longer pass for both; yet the forms *ran*, *began*, *rang*, *sang*, *sprang* &c. were even then not unknown as preterites.

2. *win*; *won*; *won*. Anglosaxon *vinnan*; sing. *vann*, plur. *vunnon*; *vunnen*. Old-English *winnen*; sing. *wan*, plur. *wonnen*; *wonnen*, *ywonne* even in *Rob. of Gloucester*.
3. *spin*; **span*, *spun*; *spun*. Anglosaxon *spinnan*; sing. *span*, plur. *spunnon*; *spunnen*. Old-English *spinnen*; sing. *span*, plur. *sponnen*; *sponnen*, *sponene* (HALLIWELL s. v.).
4. *be-gin*; *-gan*; *-gun*. Anglosaxon *be-ginnan*; sing. *-gann*, plur. *-gunnon*; *-gunnen*. Old-English *be-ginnen*; sing. *-gan*, plur. *-gonnen*; conjugative sing. *-gonne* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); *-gonnen*.

The preterite *he begon* is in *DANE SRIZ* p. 3. The simple verb *ginnan* (*gin*), which is cited as obsolete in Modern-English, is found, strange to say, spelt *'gin* in modern prints, as if the first syllable had been cast off, although the simple verb says exactly the same as that compounded with *be*: Their great guilt . . . Now *'gins* to bite the spirits (SHAKESPEARE Temp.). The loud Ethereal trumpet from on high *'gan* blow (MILTON). Even Anglosaxon *ginnan* and *beginnan*, incipere, stand beside each other.

5. *run*; *ran*; *run*. Anglosaxon *rinnan*; sing. *rann*, plur. *runnon*; *runnen* more usual in the form *irnan*; sing. *arn*, plur. *urnon*, *urnen*, compare *brinnan* and *birnan*; *brēstan* and *bērstan*; hence the Old-English *rinnen* (RITSON'S Romanc. and Old-Scotch; *rin* in *Skelton* I. 420 &c.), often *rennen*, perhaps through coincidence with the weak Anglosaxon verb of like meaning *rennan*; sing. *ran*, plur. *ronnen* (also *roune* and *roon*); *rounen*; and alongside thereof *y-ernen* (PIERS PLOUGHM. 306., compare *ernynge* = *running*, *ib.* p. 418.); sing. *y-arn* (205.), also *orn* (HALLIWELL s. v.), plur. *orn* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 34.) and *ourne* (II. 405.); *ornen*.

Beside *ran* there early stands in the preterite *ron* as *orn*. The present and the infinitive have assumed the obscure vowel of the preterite, as *burst* (Anglosaxon *bēstan*) and *burn* (Anglosaxon *birnan*), which belonged to the same strong form of conjugation.

6. *climb*; **clomb*; **clomb*; the verb is now commonly inflected weakly: *climbed*; *climbed*. Anglosaxon *climban*; sing. *clamb*, plur. *clumbon*; *clumben*. Old-English *climben*; sing. *clamb*, plur. *clomben*; *clomben*, frequently with *b* cast off (even in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), as in Old-Scotch: *climb*; *clam*; *clum*.

climbe, preter. *clome* in Drayton († 1631.), *clum* instead of *climbed* northern dialects.

7. *ring*; *rang*, *rung*; *rung*. Anglosaxon *hringan*, uncertain, whether a strong or a weak verb: sing. *hrang*, plur. *hrungon*; *hrungen* or *hringde*; *hringed*. Old-norse *hringja*, *campanam pulsare*. Old-Engl. *ringen*; sing. *rang*, plur. *rongen*; *rongen*, *rongene* (HALLIW. s. v.).
8. *fling*; *flung*; *flung*, is wanting in Anglosaxon. Old-norse *flengja*, *verberare*, Swedish *flänga*; Old-English *flingen*; sing. *flang*, plur. *flongen*; *flongen*; Scottish *fling*; *flang*; *flung*.
9. *wring*; *wrung*; *wrung*. Anglosaxon *vringan*; sing. *vrang*, plur. *vrungon*; *vrungen*. Old-English *wringen*; sing. *wrang* (*wrong* PIERS PLOUGHM.), plur. *wrongen*; *wrongen*.

Webster cites also *wringed* as preterite and participle, although little

used. The later Old-English has also *wrange*; part. *wrounge* (SKELTON I. 52. 41.); *wrang* is still in use in dialects.

10. *ding*; **dung*; **dung* now commonly *dinged*; *dinged*. In Anglo-saxon the weak verb *dencgan*; *dengde* is in use, for which we may suppose the strong *dingan*; sing. *dang*, plur. *dungen*; *dungen*. Old-English *dyngen*; sing. *dang*, plur. *dongen*; *dongen*. Old-Scotch *ding*; *dang*; *dung* (*dungen*); *dungen* is still dialectical, for instance in Lancashire.

The weak *dinged* is already old See D. Lindsay ed. Chalmers 3. p. 319.

11. *sing*; *sang*, *sung*; *sung*. Anglosaxon *singan*; sing. *sang*, plur. *sun-gon*; *sungen*. Old-English *singen*; sing. *sang* (song PIERS PLOUGH-MAN), plur. *songen*; *songen*.

sunge and *song* stand beside each other in Skelton: I 39. 373.—153. According to Smart *sang* is less in use; Webster makes it equal to *sung*. It is frequently to be met with in poets. The preterite *onke* in Gower is remarkable (see HALLIWELL s. v.). But compare Anglosaxon *sang* and *sanc*, *cantus*.

12. *sling*; **slang*, *slung*; *slung*. Anglosaxon *slingan*; sing. *slang*, plur. *slungen*; *slungen*. Old-English *slingen*; sing. *slang*, plur. *slongen*; *slongen*, *slongene* (HALLIWELL s. v.), *forslongen* = swallowed up (REYNARD the Foxe p. 10.).
13. *swing*; **swang*, *swung*; *swung*. Anglosaxon *svingan*; sing. *svang*, plur. *svungen*; *svungen*. Old-English *swingen*; sing. *swang*, plur. *swongen*; *swongen* (*swongene*, *swaungene* as a plural in HALLIWELL s. vv.).
14. *spring*; *sprang*, *sprung*; *sprung*. Anglosaxon *springan* (*sprincan*); sing. *sprang*, plur. *sprungon*; *sprungen*. Old-English *springen*; sing. *sprang*, plur. *sprongen*; *sprongen* (even ROB. OF GLOUCESTER also *sprong*), *asprongun* (DIGBY MYSTER. p. 118.), *sprongene* (HALLIWELL s. v.).

Skelton has *sprange* and *sprong* equally beside each other, as Shakespeare *sprang* and *sprung*. According to modern lexicographers *sprang* is growing obsolete; yet compare: Goethe, like Schiller, *sprang* from the people (LEWES).

15. *sting*; **stang*, *stung*; *stung*. Anglosaxon *stingan*; sing. *stang*, plur. *stungen*; *stungen*. Old-English *stingen*; sing. *stang*, plur. *stongen*; *stongen*.

Skelton has *stang* as preterite plur.: Scorpions that *stang* Pharaotis (l. 134.) and *stonge*: Behold my body, how Jewes it *stonge* (l. 144.), as a participle *stonge*, *stounge* (l. 79. 41.). *Stang* is dialectical as an infinitive in Craven and Lincolnshire.

16. *string*; *strung*; *strung*. Anglosaxon *strengan*, *extendere*, and *strang-jan*, *vigere*, are weak verbs, for which we may suppose the strong verb *stringan*; sing. *strang*, plur. *strungen*; *strungen*. Compare the Anglosaxon *string*, *funis*; *strang*, *robustus*; *stryngē*, *athleta*.

I cannot point out any Old-English inflective forms, whether merely from inattention, I know not. Shakespeare has several times *strung* in the sense of musical instruments being furnished with strings, for which *stringed* is now common. Wallis does not cite the verb at all.

17. *cling; clung; chung*. Anglosaxon is *clingan*; sing. *clang*. plur. *clungon*; *clungen*, in use only in the meanings *clangere* and *marcescere*. Old-English seems to know *clyngen* (PIERS PLOUGHM. and Rel. Antiq. II. 210.), *clongyn* (HALLIWELL s. v.) only in the latter meaning. Shakspeare has *cling* in the sense of *to dry up* Macb. 5, 5., else *cling*; *clung* as *to cleave*; like *clung*, *dried up* in HOLLYBAND 1593. Dialects have the verb also in the meaning *to smear*; Danish *klynge* *to heap*, also *to cleave*. Thus the verb *clunge* appears in the dialects of the South of England for *to crowd*, *to squeeze*. *Clung* is also cited by lexicographers of the present and of former times as the infinitive and present for *cling*.
18. *drink; drank, *drunk; drunken, drunk, drank*. Anglosaxon *drincan*; sing. *dranc*, plur. *druncon*; *druncen*. Old-English *drinken*, sing. *drank* (even ROB. OF GLOUCESTER *dronc*), plur. *dronken*; *dronken*, — *fordronken* = very drunken.

The forms of the preterite *drank* and *drunk* stand beside each other in Shakspeare, as Wallis also cites both. The participial form *drunken* has been preserved, especially in the meaning *inebriated*; *drank* has penetrated from the preterite into the participle: Thrice have I *drank* of it (L. BYRON); *drunk* readily assumes the meaning of *drunken*: I am as *drunk* as any beast (LONGFELLOW). Skelton still has: I *dranke* (l. 33.). They haue *dronke* (100.).

19. *sink; sank; sunk; sunk, sunken*. Anglosaxon *sincan*; sing. *sanc*, plur. *suncon*; *suncen*. Old-English *sinken*; sing. *sonk*, plur. *sonken*; *sonken*.

The preterite *sank* and the participle *sunken* are noted by lexicographers and grammarians as little used. Instances are frequent enough in poets: Now *sank* the sun (PARNELL). Her heart *sank* in her bosom with dread (SOUTHEY). And exhausted and breathless she *sank* on the floor (ID.). Then in a swoon she *sank* (LONGFELLOW). On his breast his head is *sunken* (ID.). They lift her o'er the *sunken* rock (ID.) &c.

20. *slink; *slank, slunk; slunk*. Anglosaxon *slican*; sing. *slanc*, plur. *sluncon*; *sluncen*. Old-English *slinken* (*slinchen*), dialectically also *slingen*; sing. *slank*, plur. *slonken*; *slonken*.
21. *stink; *stank, stunk; stunk*. Anglosaxon *stincan*; sing. *stanc*, plur. *stuncon*; *stuncen*. Old-English *stinken*; sing. *stank*, plur. *stonken*; *stonken*.

The preterite *stank* is called obsolete: Her breathe *stanke* (SKELTON l. 112.). Wallis (sec. XVII.) cites *drank* among the verbs in *ink*, not *stank*, and says that similar preterites of others are rarer.

22. *shrink; shrank, shrunk; *shrunk, shrunk*. Anglosaxon *scrincan*; sing. *scranc*, plur. *scrunccon*; *scruncen*. Old-Engl. *shrinken*; *shrank*; plur. *shronken*; *shronken*.

The preterite *shrank* is called obsolete, although modern poets and prose-writers do not disdain it: I *shrank* not from him (L. BYRON). Peril he sought not, but ne'er *shrank* to meet (ID.). That girl . . . *Shrank* from its harsh, chill breath (of the storm) (WHITTIER) — Her sunny nature *shrank* from storms (LEWES (Goethe)).

23. *bind; bound; *bounden, bound*. Anglosaxon *bindan*; sing. *band*, plur. *bundon*; *bunden*. Old-English *binden*; sing. *band* (*bond*), plur. *bonden*, *bounden*; *bonden*, *bounden*.

The participle *bunden*, *bundyn* is cited by Halliwell from Langtoft and Ritson's *Anc. Pop. Poet.* p. 89.: where *bunden* rhymes with *wonden*. The transition from *o* to *ou* is very old in verbs in *ind*; even Robert of Gloucester has *o* and *ou* beside each other. In the singular *a* and *o* are as often interchanged. The participle *bounden* is still in use in the limited sense (limited, appointed, beholden to). Fairfax in Tasso has the preterite *band*, which has remained in use in dialects.

24. *find*; *found*; *found*. Anglosaxon *findan*; sing. *fand*, plur. *fundon*; *funden*. Old-English *finden*; sing. *fand* (*fond*), plur. *fonden*, *funden*; *fonden*, *funden*.

The preterite *fand* is still in use in Westmoreland, as Fairfax uses it in Tasso. *fand*, *fan* also occur dialectically as a participle, but is erroneously ascribed by Chalmers to Old-English.

25. *wind*; *wound*; *wound*. Anglosaxon *vindan*; sing. *vand*, plur. *vunden*; *vunden*. Old-English *winden*; sing. *wand* &c., plur. *wonden* &c.; *wonden* &c.

The verb *wind* = to ventilate from *wind*, Anglosaxon *vind*, *ventus*, is inflected regularly. The weak preterite *winded* instead of *wound* is in Pope. See *Smart Dict.* s. v.

26. *grind*; *ground*; *ground*. Anglosaxon *grindan*; sing. *grand*, plur. *grunden*; *grunden*. Old-English *grinden*; sing. *grand* &c., plur. *gronden* &c.; *gronden* &c., also *grundyn* (CHALMERS in D. Lindsay. 3. p. 356. MORTE ARTHURE in Halliwell s. v.), *gronden* and *gron* in Western dialects.

The preterite passes in Chaucer into the weak conjugation: And *grynte* with his teeth (7743.). The form *grinting* certainly stands in The *Perceval* Tale p. 150. II. Tyrwh., as if a collateral form *grint* for *grind* were the standard.

27. *fight*; *fought*; **foughten*, *fought*. Anglosaxon *feohtan*; sing. *feacht*, plur. *fuhton*; *fohten*. Old-English *fighten*; sing. *faucht* (*fought*), plur. *foughten*; *foughten*, *foghten* (*forfaghte* HALLIWELL s. v.).

The participle *foughten*, obsolete in writing is in use dialectically, for instance, in Craven (alongside of *foffen*); *feight* and *feighten* rule in Westmoreland; Old-Scottish *fecht*; *faucht*; *fockty* (BARBOUR) and *faucht*.

We must regard as having passed over into this class:

28. *dig*; *dug*; *dug*, alongside thereof *digged*; *digged*, in Shakespeare also *dight*, which are the older forms. Anglosaxon has a weak verb *dicjan*, whence Old-English *diken*, *dichen*; *dikede*; *diked*, even now *dike* = to surround with a dike; Danish *dige*. It also occurs in Old-English in the meaning to *dig* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 128.). Yet Old-English has also *dyggen* (MAUNDEV. p. 107.).

29. *stick*; *stuck*; *stuck*. The infinitive and the present agree in meaning with the weak Anglosaxon *sticjan*; *pungere*, *haerere*. The Old-English has however the verb *stiken*; *stack*, *stek*, which points to Anglosaxon *stæcan*; sing. *stāc*; plur. *stæcon*; *stēcen*, alongside whereof, particularly in Scotch *steck*; *stecked* (*steckit*, *steekit*, *steikkit*) stands. With *stike*, *stuck*; *strike*, *struck*, strikingly agrees (in the fifth class). The preterite *stack* is still in use in Yorkshire.

30. *hang*; *hung*; *hung* beside *hanged*; *hanged*. Anglosaxon *hangan*; sing. *hēng*, plur. *hēngon*; *hangan*. See the last class.

In Modern-English there have almost wholly passed into the weak conjugation:

31. *swell*; *swelled*; *swelled* and *swollen*, *swoln*. Anglosaxon *svëllan*, *svillan*; sing. *sveall*, plur. *svullon*; *svollen*. Old-English *swellen*; sing. *swal*, *swalle*, plur. *swollen*; *swollen*.

The participle *swollen*, *swoln*, is still in use: The maidens fair Saw from each eye escape a *swollen* tear (LONGFELLOW). The surge most *swoln* (SHAKESPEARE Temp.). Asking few In aid to overthrow these *swoln* patricians (L. BYRON).

32. *help*; **help*, *helped*; **holpen*, **holp*, *helped*. Anglosaxon *hëlpān*; sing. *healp*, plur. *hulpon*; *holpen*. Old-English *helpen*; sing. *halp*, plur. *holpen*; *holpen* (*holpe*).

help as a preterite and participle alongside of *helped* was still familiar to Shakespeare; later writers have *holpen*.

33. *melt*, intransit. and transit.; *melted*; **molten*, *melted*. Anglosaxon *mëltan*, *miltan*; sing. *mealt*, plur. *multon*; *molten*, *dissolvi*, alongside whereof *meltan* (-ede, -ed, and -te, -t) liquefacere. Both meanings are combined in the Modern-English verb. Old-English *melten*; sing. *malte* (GOWER), plur. *molten*; *molten*.

The participle *molten* is mostly used now as an adjective only.

34. *burst*. See above p. 351.

Old-English had a multitude of strong verbs of this class, now passed into the weak conjugation or wholly lost. Here belong, for instance: *thringen*; sing. *thrang*, plur. *throngen* (thringen PIERS PLOUGHM.); *throngen*. Anglosaxon *þringan*; sing. *þrang*, plur. *þrungon*; *þrungon*: Modern-English to throng. — *swinken*; sing. *swank*, plur. *swonken*; *swonken*. Modern-English to swink (SPENSER). — *yellen*; sing. *ȝal* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), plur. *yollen*; *yollen*. Anglosaxon *gillan*, *gëllan*; sing. *geall*, plur. *gullon*; *gollen*: Modern-English to yell. — *yelden*; sing. *yald*, *yalt* (HALLWELL s. v.), plur. *ȝolden*, *yolden*; *yolden*. Anglosaxon *gildan*, *gëldan*; sing. *geald*, plur. *guldon*; *golden*: Modern-English to yield. — *dolven*; sing. *dalf*, plur. *dolven*; *dolven*. Anglosaxon *dëlfan*; sing. *dealf*, plur. *dulfon*; *dolfen*: Modern-English to delve. — *swelten*; sing. *swelt* seems weak even in Old-English, since *swelted* and the participle *swelt* are also found, Anglosaxon *sveltan*; sing. *svealt*, plur. *svulton*; *svolten*: Modern-English *to swelt. — *sterven*; sing. *starf*, plur. *storven*; *storven*. Anglosaxon *steorfan*; sing. *stearf*, plur. *sturfon*; *storfen*: Modern-English to starve. — *kerven*; sing. *carf* (also *kerf*), plur. *corven*; *corven*: Anglosaxon *ceorfan*; sing. *cearf*, plur. *curfon*; *corfen*: Modern-English to carve. — *werpen*; sing. *warp*, plur. *worpen*; *worpen*, *jacere*: Anglosaxon *veorpan*; sing. *vearp*, plur. *vurpon*; *vorpen*: Modern-English to warp, in a different meaning, and many others.

Second Class. It comprises in Anglosaxon verbs having in the present *i* (*eo*, *ē*), in the preterite sing. *a* (*ā*), plur. *æ* (*ā*, *e*) and in the perfect participle *u* (*o*). They end in a single nasal or liquid letter. In Old-English the corresponding present is *e* and *i* (*o* only under the influence of the previous Anglosaxon *v*) preterite sing. *a* (*e* and *o*), plur. *a* (*e*, *o*), perfect participle *o*. Modern-English has in the present *ea* (*o* as in Old-English), preterite sing. and plur. *ō* and *ā*, perfect participle *ō*. The passing of the vowels into each other is explained by the relations of sound in Anglosaxon.

1. *cōme; came; cōme* (exceptionally with a short *o*, for the Anglosaxon *u*), Anglosaxon *cviman, cuman*; sing. *cvam, cam, com*, plur. *cvamun, cāmon, cōmon*; *cumen, cymen* Old-English *comen*; sing. *cam, com*, but also *coom, came, come*, plur. *coomen, comen*. Con-junctive sing. plur. *coome, coomen; comen*.

The compounds *become, overcome* follow the simple verb. *Com* instead of *cāme* is still in use, especially in the North of England, *cum* stands for it in Langtoft. The older Scottish had *cum* alongside of *com* as a present. The perf. participle *cum* is met with towards the sixteenth century: I was *cum* (SKELTON I. 405.). A weak participle *comed* stands in Roger Ascham, as Northern dialects still have *comed, cummed*. The form extends to a great antiquity. Compare Dial. of Craven I. p. 83.

2. *steal; stole; stolen, *stole*. Anglosaxon *stēlan*; sing. *stāl*, plur. *stælon*; *stolen*, Old-English *stelen*; sing. *stale, stel*, plur. *stolen* (PIERS PLOUGHM.); *stolen, stole, stolne* (also *stale* for *stole* HALLIWELL s. v.).

The preterite *stale* remained long in use: She . . *stale* away (SKELTON I. 22.). The shortened participle *stole* is still met with in Modern-English, as well as in Milton.

3. *beār, hare, bore; born, borne*. Anglosaxon *bēran, beoran*; sing. *bār*, plur. *bæron; boren*. Old-English *beren*, sing. *bar, baar, ber, bore* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER, MAUNDEV., PIERS PLOUGHM.), plur. *beren, baren; boren, born, borne*.

The compound *forbear* has the preterite *forbore*, part. *forborne* and likewise *overbear*. Modern usage limits the preterite *bare* and the participle *born* to the meaning *pario, partus*. The older language does not know this distinction: Alas, the tyme that I was *borne* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 188.). The worst brawler that euer was *borne* (SKELTON I. 298.). Milton still has the participle *bore*.

4. *weār; (ware) wore; worn*. In Anglosaxon the strong verb which we must else presuppose is wanting: *vēran*; sing. *vār*, plur. *væron; voren*; the weak verb to be referred here is *verjan, -ēde, -ed*, also *-ōde, ōd, induere, gerere* (vestes). Old-English *weren* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 322.); sing. *ware, were*, plur. . .; *worn, forworn* (HALLIWELL s. v.).

The preterite *ware* cited by Smart as obsolete, familiar to Skelton, is still not uncommon with poets. Old-English has also the weak form corresponding to the Anglosaxon: He *wered* a gepoun (CHAUCER 75.).

5. *teār; (tare), tore; torn*. Anglosaxon *tēran*; sing. *tār*, plur. *tæron; toren*. Old-English *teren*; sing. *tar* (*tarne*, HALLIW. s. v.), *tore*, plur. . .; *torn, torne* (*tare* Voc. Ms. sec. XV. in HALLIW. s. v.).

Of the obsolete *tare* the same may be said as of *ware*. A weak form of the verb seems not unknown in Old English: To be *teared* thus and *torne* (SKELTON I. 357.).

6. *shēar* (diverging in vocalization from the *e*-sounding other verbs in *ear*); **shore, sheared; shorn, *shore*. Anglosaxon *scēran*; sing. *scār, scear*, plur. *scæron, sceāron*; *scoren*. Old-English *scheren*; sing. *share, shore*, plur. *shoren; shorne, shore*.

The preterite *shore* is the rule in the seventeenth century, as in Shakespeare; **share* is also permitted alongside of it; *shore, shoor* is still widely

diffused dialectically. The weak form also formerly sounded *scharde* (HALLIWELL v. share). The participle *shore* is in Shakspeare Mids. N. Dr. 5, 1.

As passed over from the fourth class into the second is to be regarded:

7. *sweār*; (*sware*), *swore*; *sworn*, **swore*. Anglosaxon *sverjan*; sing. *svôr*, plur. *svôron*; *svaren*, *svoren*. Old-English *sweren*; suor, swor, swoor, later also sware; plur. *sworen*, yet very early even *sweren* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); *sworen*.

The transition is accordingly old; the preterite *sware*, even in Shakspeare alongside of *swore*, was used in the seventeenth century, along with the latter. It is now almost forgotten.

Old-English still has a few other strong verbs belonging here, as *nimen*; *nemen*; (benyman ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), sing. *nam*, *name*, *nom*, plur. *nomen*; *nomen*. Anglosaxon *niman*; sing. *nam*, plur. *nâmon*, *nêmun*; *numen*. Modern-English *to *nim* (HUDIBR.). *helen* (forhelen); sing. *hole*, plur. . .: *holen* (forholen DAME SIRIZ p. 8.), *hole*, *holne*. Anglosaxon *hêlan*; sing. *hâl*, plur. *hælon*; *holen*. Whence *forhêlan*, *celare* = Modern-English to hide, not to be confounded with the weak Old-English *helen*, Anglosaxon *hælan*, to heal.

Third Class. It has been variously disturbed in its vocalization in Modern-English, partly under the influence of consonants. In the Anglosaxon it has in the present *i* (*eo*, *ē*), in the preterite sing. *ā* (*ea*), plur. *æ* (*ēd*), and in the perfect part. *i* or *ē*. The Old-English present has *i* or *e*, the preterite sing. *a* (*o*), the plur. *e* (rarely *o*), the perf. participle *e* (*i*, also *o*). Modern-English offers in the present *i*, *e*, *ea*, in the preterite *a* and *o*, in the perfect participle *i*, *ea*, *e*, *o*. It originally ends in a single mute consonant.

1. *bid*; *bade*, *bid*; *bidden*, *bid*. Anglosaxon *biddan*; sing. *bād*, plur. *bædon*; *bēden*, *petere* mixed with the Anglosaxon *beōdan*; sing. *beād*, plur. *budon*; *boden*, *offerre*, *jubere*. Old-English *bidden* (*beden*); sing. *bad*, *bed* (also = offered), *beot* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 65., else *bode*, *bot*), alongside thereof the weak form *bidde*, in the plural *beden* (*boden*).

The mixture of the two Anglosaxon verbs is manifest in the Modern-English *forbid*; *forbade*; *forbidden*, *forbid*, to which only the Anglosaxon *forbeōdan*, *prohibere* corresponds; Old-English *forbeden*, in the perfect participle *forboden*, *forbode*, *forbed* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 6.). Compare also: Who hath yow *misboden*? (injured) (CHAUCER 911.).

The preterite and participle *bid* (*bidd*) stood in the seventeenth century quite even with *bad*, *bidden* and is still tolerated alongside of these, as *forbid*: If the Euphrates be *forbid* us (L. BYRON). It seems, like the Old-English *bidde* (PIERS PLOUGHM. and SKELTON), to rest upon a passing into the weak conjugation. We often find *bad* instead of *bade*, for instance in Shakspeare: Love *bad* me swear, and love bids me forswear (TWO GENTL. OF VER.); whereas the modern editions mostly offer *bade*. See Mommsen's Romeo and Juliet p. 8. She *bed* still in Skelton I. 384.

2. *sit*; *sat* (*sate*); *sat* (*sate*); **sitten*. Anglosaxon *sittan*, *sitjan*; sing. *sāt*, plur. *sæton*, *sēten*. Old-English *sitten*; sing. *sat*, *seet*, *sete*, plur. *seten*; *seten* (CHAUCER 1454. 6002. Wright).

The form of the preterite *sate* is frequent enough, although often absent

in dictionaries: Amidst the common pomp the despot *sate* (L. BYRON). It also stands for the participle: Had I *sate* down too humbly (L. BYRON). He had *sate* in the High Commission (MACAULAY). Wallis has *sate* for the preterite and participle, and also cites *sitt*, for both, by analogy to *bidd*.

3. *spit*; **spat*, **spitten*. See above p. 349.

4. *give*; *gave*; *given* (*forgive*; *-gave*; *-given*). Anglosaxon *gifan*, *geofan*, sing. *geaf*, plur. *geáfon*; *gifen*, (*forgifan* &c.). Old-English *given*, *zeuen*, *yeven*; sing. *zaf*, *zef*, even *zif* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 162.); *gave*, *yave*, *yove*, plur. *zeuen*; *yeven*, *zoven*, *zove* (LYDGATE, GOWER); dialectically *gin*, *gon*.

5. *lie*; *lay*; *lain*. Anglosaxon *licgan*, *liggan*, *ligēan*; sing. *lāg*, plur. *lægon*; *lēgen*. Old-English *liggen* (ly3n, MAUNDEV.), *lien*; sing. *lai*, *lay*, plur. *laien*, *leyen*; *leyen*, *yleye*, *lien* (CHAUCER p. 170. 172. ed. Tyrwh.), *lein*, *lain*.

The forms are explained by the softening of *g* into *i*, *y*.

6. *get*; *got*; *gotten*, *got*. Anglosaxon *gētan*, *gitan*; sing. *geat*, plur. *geāton*; *gēten*. Old-English *geten*, *yeten*, *getten*; sing. *gat*, *gatt*, *get*, plur. *geten*, *goten* (MAUNDEV. p. 67.); *geten*, *yetten*, *goten* (MAUNDEV.).

The compounds *forget*; *forgot*; *forgotten*, *forgot*. Anglosaxon *forġetan* and *beġet*; *beġat*, *beġot*; *beġotten*, *beġot*. Anglosaxon *beġetan*, mostly the form *gat*. In the seventeenth century the preterites *gat*, *forgat*, *beġat* were still current; even Shakspeare has the forms *gat* and *got* alongside of each other. At present *gat* and *forgat* pass for obsolete. Dialectically the simple *gat* is still in use. This verb has also at times weak forms in the ancients: What hast thou *gotted*? (SKELTON I. 296.).

7. *see*; *saw*; *seen*. Anglosaxon *sēon*, *sēhvan*; sing. *seah*, plur. *sāvon*, *seāgon*, *sægon*, *sēgon*; *sēven*, *sēgen*, *seoven*, *seogen*, *sēn*, *sȳn*, *sīn*. Old-English *sen*, *sene*, *see*; sing. *sey*, *say* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *seigh*, *seyghe*, *saugh*, *saughe*, plur. *sayen*, *seighen* &c.; *seyen*, *seighen*, *seene*.

The compounds, as *foresee*. Anglosaxon *foresēon*, *providere*; *oversee*. Anglosaxon *ofersēon*, *videre*, *contemnere*, follow the simple verb. The vowel changes are explained by the *w* of the stem interchanging with *g*.

8. *trēad*; *trod* (*trode*); *trodden*, *trod*. Anglosaxon *trēdan*; sing. *trād*, plur. *trædon*; *trēden*. Old-English *treden*; sing. *trad*, *trade*, *trode*, plur. *troden*; *troden*.

The passage of the participle into the *o*-sound seems to be very old. The preterite with an inorganic *e* still occurs: And round the white man's lordly hall, *Trode*, fierce and free, the brute he made (WHITTIER); as well as the participle that had suffered apocope: *Twere not the first Greek girl had *trod* the path (L. BYRON). A weak preterite is known by PIERRE FLOUGHM. Creed, p. 475: *tredede*.

9. *brēak*; **brake*, *broke*; *broken*, *broke*. Anglosaxon *brēcān*; sing. *brāc*, plur. *bræcon*; *brocen*. This Anglosaxon verb passes, with its participle, into the second class, as well as occasionally also *sprēcān*, *spēcān*. Old-English *breken*; sing. *brak*, *brek* (even ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *brake*, *breke*, plur. *braken*; *broken*, *ybroke*.

The weak preterite *braikit* is Old-Scottish. The preterite *brake* is ob-

solete: By the brede that God *brake* (SKELTON I. 320.). His passion ne'er *brake* into extremity of rage (SHAKESPEARE Com. of Err.). The blunted participle *broke* is, as in Shakspeare, so in the most modern times, in use: That his frail bonds . . are *broke* (L. BYRON Ch. Har.) . . That time may have tamed, but has not *broke* (LONGFELLOW).

10. *ēat; āte, ēat; ēaten, ēat*, with change of vocalization. Anglosaxon *etan*; sing. *āt*, plur. *æton*; *ēten*. Old-English *eten*; sing. *at*, *et*, *eet*, plur. *eton*, *eten*; *eten* — *ysete* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER often), compare *ge-gessen*, to which the Anglosaxon, which has *gedrincan*, seems to offer no support.

A compound of *eat* is the now weak *fret*, to rub; *fretted* (*fret* Levit 13.); *fretted* and *fretten* even in Shakspeare in *Merch. of Ven.* 4, 1., in the quartos, and in *pockfretten*. Anglosaxon *frētan* (compare Gothic *fra-itan*); sing. *frāt*, plur. *fræton*; *freten*. Old-English *freten*; sing. *frat*, *fret*, *freet*, plur. *freten*; *freten*, *fretyne* (*Morte Arth.* in Halliwell).

Skelton has the participle *frete* with apocope: He is *frete* with angre (I. 79.). From this compound we must distinguish *fret* commonly confounded with it, to *do elegant work, to adorn*, which belongs to the Anglosaxon *frātu*, ornamentum, *frätvjan*, ornare.

11. *wēave; wove; woven (wove)*. Anglosaxon *vēfan*; sing. *vāf*, plur. *væfon*; *vēfen*. Old-English *weven*, *weffen* (GOWER); sing. *wave* (CHAUCER) . . ; *woven*

The weak form seems to have been also early used for this verb, compare Anglosaxon *vēffan*, *vēbban*: *vēfede*; *vēfed*. Old-English has *beveved* (GUY OF WARWICK p. 303. in Halliwell). In the North of England the participle *wef* is in use. *Weave* has also the weak forms in Modern-English: *waved* stands as the preterite and participle in Shakspeare, and is quoted by moderns as sometimes used. The blunted participle *wove* has Dryden for example.

12. *spēak; spake, spoke; spoken, spoke*. Anglosaxon *sprēcan*, *spreo-can*, often also *spēcan*; sing. *prāc*, plur. *spræcon*; *sprēcēn*, occasionally *sprocen* (see *break*). Old-Engl. *speken*; sing. *spak*, *spek*, plur. *spekon* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER). later there appear the preterites *spake*, *spoke*; *speken* (DAME SIRIZ p. 8.), *bespeke* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 55.), *spoken*, *spoke*.

The preterite *spake* stands equivalent to *spoke* in the seventeenth century; in modern times it has remained chiefly with the poets: The same patron whom I *spake* of (L. BYRON). They *spake* a mutual language (M.). Smiling she *spake* these words (LONGFELLOW) He moved not, he looked not, he *spake* not (M.). Then to his conqueror he *spake* (BRYANT). The participle *spoke*, with apocope, very common in Shakspeare, likewise belongs especially to poets. It is found in Sterne, W. Scott, and others.

13. A remnant of a verb of this class is *quoth*, now commonly employed as first and third person of the preterite (*quoth I, he, she*). Anglosaxon *cvēðan*; sing. *cvāð*, plur. *cvædon*; *cvēden*. Old-English *quethen*; sing. *quap* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *quoth* (MAUNDEV.), *quod* (PIERS PLOUGHM.), plur. *quothe* &c.

Quoth is falsely declared to be the present. Even in Old-English the formula *quotha*, *quoda* = *quoth* he occurs, which in East-Anglian dialects sounds *cutha*. *Quothe* passes also as the Old-English for the plural:

quothe thei (MAUNDEV. p. 221.). So Shakspeare also uses *quothe*: Did they? *quothe you* (LOVE'S L. L. 4. 3.). — The compound *bequeath*, Old-English *bequethen*, is now inflected weakly. In Old-English the preterite *byqueþ* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER) and *biquath* (HEARNE), Anglosaxon *becvedan*, *legare*.

To the strong verbs, now abandoned, belongs: *wrēak*; *wroke*; *wroken*, as these forms sounded in the later Old-English, now *wreaked*; *wreaked*. The earlier Old-English forms were: *wreken* (frequent in the compound *awreken*), *wrechen*; *wrak*, *wrake*; *i-wreken* (DANE SIRIZ p. 7.), *awreke* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I 14.), *beurecke* (in Halliwell s. v.), *wroken*, Anglosaxon *wrēcan*; sing. *wrāc*, plur. *wræcon*; *wrēcen*. — Vestiges of other verbs are: *kneđen*; participle *knedde* (CHAUCER Rom. of the Rose 4814.), even now in Northern dialects *knodden*, Anglosaxon *cnēdan*; sing. *cnād*, plur. *cnædon*; *cnēden*. Modern-English to *knead*. — *weyen*; participle *weyen*. Anglosaxon *wēgan*; sing. *wāg*, plur. *wægon*; *wēgen*. Modern-English to *weigh* &c.

Fourth Class. In Anglosaxon it offers in the present *a*, *ea* (*e*), in the preterite sing. and plur. *ō*, in the participle perfect *a*, *ea* (*ā*). In Old-English it has in the present *a*, which through the cooperation of a following guttural passes into another vowel (see 7th class); in the preterite sing. and plur. *o*, more rarely *oo*, in the participle perfect *a* (*o*). Modern-English offers in the present short and long *a*, in the preterite *oo* and *o*, in the participle perfect *ā*, sometimes *oo*, *o*. Some verbs of this class have passed into other strong conjugations, as *swear* into the second, *draw* and *slay* essentially into the seventh. Many have preserved only their strong participle, and have else passed into the weak form.

1. *wake*; *woke*, *waked*; *waked* and the compound *awake*; *awoke*, *awaked*; *awaked*. Here blend the strong Anglosaxon verb *vacan*; *vōc*; *vacen* — *āvacan* &c., *suscitari*, *expergiscere*, and the weak *vacjan*, *āvacjan* in the same meaning. They pass over at the same time in English into the transitive meaning. Old-English *waken* (*awaken*); preterite *wok*, *wook*, *woke*. The simple, as well as the compound verb have also in Old-English the weak preterites and participles *waked*, *awaked*, and these forms seem to be chiefly found in the participle.

In Modern-English *wake* is stated by lexicographers to be always *weak*. The preterite *woke* is in use even now, although Shakspeare has it not: And the startled artist *woke* (LONGFELLOW). I turned to thee . . And *woke* all faint with sudden fear (W.). Shuddering . . I *woke* As from a dream (WHITTIER).

2. *take*; *took*; *taken*, often *ta'en*, particularly in poets, also *took*. Anglosaxon *tacan*; *tōc*; *tacen*. Old-English *taken*; *toke*, *took*; *taken*, *take*. *takene*.

As in Modern-English *ta'en* with an elided *k* stands as a participle, the Old-English and the Old-Scottish had *tane*. Old-English even conjugated *ta* (infinitive), present *tath*; preterite *to*; participle *tan*. The compounds *mistake*, *partake*, *betake*, *overtake* follow the simple verb. The form of the preterite which has penetrated the participle, common to this class in general, is denoted a barbarism by moderns, but is common enough: And he that might the vantage best have *took* (SHAKSPEARE Meas. f. Meas.). I have *mistook* (Two Gentl. of Ver.). He had lately

undertook To prove &c. (BUTLER). Thou hast *mistook* (ROWE). Who is he . . . whose brethren . . . have not *partook* oppression? (L. BYRON)

3. *shake; shook; shaken*, also *shook*. The weak form of the preterite and participle **shaked* is no longer cited by modern grammarians and lexicographers. Anglosaxon *scacan*, *sceacan*; *scôc*, *seôc*; *sca-cen*, *sceacen*. Old-English *shaken*, *schaken*; *schoc*, *shook*; *shaken*.

The weak form *shaked* is old: Howe Cupyde *shaked* His darte (SKELTON I. 347). It was in use up to the eighteenth century. Shakspeare has all strong and weak forms of the verb beside each other, also the participial form *shook*, met with even in the latest times: How many hands were *shook* and votes were won (BRYANT).

4. *forsake; forsook; forsaken*, also *forsook*. The simple *sake*, which occurs in Old-English, is said by Halliwell to be still in use. Anglosaxon *for-sacan*; *-sôc*; *-sacen*, *negare*, *detrahere*. Old-English *forsaken*; *forsok*; *forsaken*.

The participial form *forsook* is the same as others of this sort: Proteus hath *forsook* her (SHAKSPEARE Two Gentl. of Ver.). The immortal mind, that hath *forsook* Her mansion (MILTON); so too in Lady Montague and later writers.

5. *stave; stove; stove* or *staved*, as the preterite also sounded, seems of modern formation, a denominative from *staf*, *truncus*. Compare Old-norse *stofna*, *truncare*, and the Highdutch *stieben* standing in relation to *staub* and *stab*. *Stovven* = split, riven, is dialectic in the North of England.

6. *stand; stood; stood*. Anglosaxon *standan*; *stôd*; *standen*. Old-English *standen*; *stod*, *stode*, *stood*; *stonden*.

Neither the simple verb nor the verbs compounded with it shew in Old-English the passage of the preterite into the participle. In the Craven dialect the participle *stooden* occurs.

A number of verbs of this class, which have preserved only their strong participle beside weak forms, are:

7. *shape; shapen* and *shaped*. Anglosaxon *scapan*, *sceapan*, *sceppan*; *scôp*, *sceôp*; *scapen*, *sceapen*. Old-English *shapen*; *shop*, *shoop*; *shapen*. Even in Old-English the weak form of the preterite *shapte* also occurs. The weak form of the participle is now considered the better, even beside *misshapen*, *misshaped* is called correct.
8. *grave; graven*, also *graved*. Engrave is, according to some, weak, according to Smart *engraven* is also permitted. Anglosaxon *grafan*; *grôf*; *grafen*. Old-English *graven*; *grofe*; *graven*, also *grove*. In the Craven dialect *grovven*; *grauin* (SKELTON I. 385.).
9. *shave; shaven* and *shaved*, the former obsolete. Anglosaxon *scafan*; *scôf*; *scafen*. Old-English *shaven*; *shofe*; *shaven*.
10. *lade* and *load; laden*, *loaden* and *laded*, *loaded*. Anglosaxon *hladan*; *hlôd*; *hladen*. Old-English *laden*, *loden*; *lode*; *laden*, *loden*. *Loaden* is less usual than *loaded*.
11. *bake; baken*, now commonly *baked*. Anglosaxon *bacan*; *bôc*; *ba-cen*. Old-English *baken*; *boke*; *baken*, *ybake*.
12. *wax; waxen*, *waxed*. Anglosaxon *veaxan*; *vôx* (*veôx*); *veaxen*.

Old-English *wexen*; *wex*, *wexe*, *woxe*; *waxen*, *woxen*. In Robert of Gloucester the preterite sing. *wax*, plur. *wox*; in Piers Ploughman sing. *weex*, plur. *woxen* is remarkable. *Waxen* is obsolete.

In Old-English a few more strong verbs of this class are maintained: *faren*, *fore*; *faren*, *farn*. Anglosaxon *faran*; *fōr*; *faren*, *ire*. Modern-English *to fare*. The weak *ferde* corresponds in form to the Anglosaxon *ferjan*. — *aken*; *ok*, *oke*; . . . (Rob. of Gloucester 4.). Anglosaxon *acan*; *ōc*; *acen*. Modern-English *to ache*. — *quaken*; *quok*, *quoke* . . . yet also *quakede*; *quaked* is weak in Anglosaxon *cwacjan*, *tremere*, like the Modern-English *to quake*. — *waschen*; *wassche*, *wesshe*; *washen*; but also weak even in the preterite *wasshed* (Macnag. and Piers Ploughman.). Anglosaxon *vascan*; *vōsc*; *vascen*, *vāscen*. Modern-English *to wash*. The participle *washen* has nevertheless been long preserved. — *laughen*, *lauhen* (Old-Scottish *lauch*) and *lizhen* (Rob. of Gloucester); *lowz*, *low* (10.). *lough* (Piers Ploughman.); *lowen* (10.). Anglosaxon *hleahan*, *hlīhan*; *hlōh*, plural *hlōgon*; *hlāhen*, *hleāhen*. Modern-English *to laugh*. Piers Ploughman p. 275. has the weak form *laughed*. — *gnawen*; *gnowe*, *gnoghe*; *gnawn*. Anglosaxon *gnagan*; *gnōg*; *gnagen*; Modern-English *to gnaw*, whose strong participle *gnawn* Shakespeare has in Merry Wiv. 2, 2, has, like *draw* already passed in part into the seventh class, since it had also the preterite *gnew* still in use in Suffolk.

Fifth Class. It has in Anglosaxon in the present *i*, in the preterite sing. *ā*, plur. *i* and perfect participle *i*. Old-English leaves to the present *i*, gives to the preterite sing. *o*, also *a*, plur. *ī* and to the participle *i*. In Modern-English *i* remains in the present, the preterite fluctuates between *ō* and *ī*, the perfect participle retains *i*, although often assuming the vowel of the preterite. In the seventeenth century the forms of the preterite in *ī* are preferred by Alexander Gill to those in *a*, and to those in *o* then in use along with these, and deemed equal to those in *o* by J. Wallis, who especially acknowledges *thrive*, *rise*, *smitt*, *writt*, *abidd*, *ridd*, as Gil *drive*. Many of these verbs offer the semblance of a transition into the weak form of stems ending in *t* or *d*. Some have at the same time passed wholly or partially into the weak conjugation in *ed*.

1. *shine*; *shone*; *shone*. The preterite and the participle have also adopted the weak form *shined*, which however is postponed in usage to the strong one. Anglosaxon *scīnan*; sing. *scān*, *sceān*, plur. *scinon*; *scinen*. Old-English *shinen*; sing. *shon*, *shone*, pl. *shinen*.

The passage of the preterite into the participle seems old; I have not observed the participle *shinen*. Besides the vowel of *shone* sec. XVII. was in the seventeenth century still marked long *shōne*. The weak form of the preterite is not quite recent. The *shinde* in use in Northern dialects is in Fairfax's Tasso: *Flames in his visage shinde*.

2. *drive*; **drave*, *drove*; *driven*, **drove*. Anglosaxon *drifan*; sing. *drāf*, plur. *drifon*; *drifen*. Old-English *driven*; sing. *drof*, plur. *driven*; *driven*, *drefene* (Halliwell s. v.).

Instead of *drof* we find in Old-English also *dref* (comp. Danish *drev*) as a preterite; *drave* occurs, as well as in Shakespeare, in modern poetry: *From battle fields, Where heroes madly drave and dashed their hosts Against each other* (Bryant). The participial form *drove* is in Milton

and is common to several dialects; instead thereof we find *drowen* (WARTON I. 88.).

3. *strive; strove; striven*, although fundamentally Germanic, rests upon no Anglosaxon verb, but on the Old-French *estriver*; the *strifan*, which has been imagined in Anglosaxon, according to others *stræfan*, did not exist. Old-English *striven*; sing. *strof*, plur. . . : *striven*.

North-English dialects still have the preterite *strave*, formerly in use in Modern-English: Not us'd to frozen clips he *strave* to find some part (SYDNEY). Shakspeare inflected *strive; strove; strove*.

4. *thrive; throve; thriven*. The preterite also runs *thrived* (compare Shakspeare Pericl. 5, 2. *thriv'd*, ed. Collier), as well as sometimes the participle. Anglosaxon *prifan*; sing. *próf*, plur. *prifon*; *prifen*, *colere*, *curare*. Old-English *thriven*; sing. *throf*, also *thrafe*, *thrave* (Perceval 212. 226.), plur. *thriven*; *thriven*.

Threave and *threve* are also cited for the preterite. The older preterite *thrive* (sec. XVII.) rests upon the transition of the plural into the singular, as well as the rest in *i*.

5. *bite; bit; bitten, bit*. Anglosaxon *bítan*; sing. *bât*, plur. *biton*; *biten*. Old-English *biten*; sing. *boot*, *bote*, also *bate*, plur. *biten*; *biten*.
6. *write; wrote; *writ; written, writ, *wrote*. Anglosaxon *writan*; sing. *writ*, plur. *writon*; *writen*. Old-English *writen*; sing. *wroot*, *wrot*, also *wrate* (frequently in Skelton); plur. *writen*; *writen*, *ywryte*, *wrote* (HALLIWELL s. v.).

The older preterite *writ*, which Shakspeare also has, is indeed found in moderns, but is upon the whole obsolete, although in use dialectically. On the other hand the participle *writ* is still very frequently to be met with, especially in poets, as well as in Shakspeare: Go, read whate'er is *writ* of bloodiest strife (L. BYRON). And what is *writ*, is *writ* (ID.). The participle *wrote*, springing from the preterite, is met with in Shakspeare, Milton, Addison and others.

7. *smite; smote; smitten, smit, smote*. Anglosaxon *smítan*; sing. *smâð*, plur. *smiton*; *smiten*. Old-English *smiten*; sing. *smot*, *smote*, plur. *smyton* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); *smiten*, *ysmyte*, *smeten* (HALLIWELL s. v.) *smitten*.

The participle has passed over in Chaucer into the weak form *smitted*, Troil. and Cress. 5, 1544.; the participial form *smit* is still in use: *Smit* with the love of sacred song (MILTON). How *smit* was poor Adelaide's heart at the sight (CAMPBELL). The perjurer . . and he who laughed . . Are *smit* with deadly silence (BRYANT). The form borrowed from the preterite still belongs to the modern poets: When their fresh rags have *smote* The dew of night (SHAKSPEARE Love's L. L. 4, 3.). Ah, Judas! thou hast *smote* my side (LONGFELLOW). — The preterite *smit*, which was current in the seventeenth century, is still diffused in dialects.

8. *ride; rode; *rid; ridden, rid, rode*. Anglosaxon *ridan*; sing. *rid*, plur. *ridon*; *riden*. Old-English *riden*; sing. *rod*, *rood*, *rode*, plur. *riden*, *redyn* (HALLIWELL s. v.); *riden*, *ridden*.

The preterite *rode* and *rid* still stand alongside of each other in Shakspeare, the latter is now obsolete. In Northern dialects *raad* still prevails,

as *rad* in Spenser and *rade* in Barbour (as a plural). Among the three forms of the participle in Shakspeare, that with the vowel of the preterite singular is noted by Smart as the best.

9. *bide; preterite *bid (SHAKSP.), now commonly as a compound *abide*; *abode*; *abode*. Anglosaxon *bīdan*, *ābīdan*; sing. *bād*, plur. *biden*; *biden*. Old-English *biden*, *abiden*; sing. -*bod*, -*bood*, -*bode*, -*bade* (*habade* HALLIWELL), plur. -*biden*; -*biden*, -*bidden*, -*boden* (PIERS PLOUGHM.), -*bode*.

The simple verb, widely diffused in Old-English (comp. Old-Scottish *bide*; *bade*, *baid*; *biden*, *bidden*) has in Modern-English yielded to the compound *abide* but has remained in several dialects. The preterite in *i*, a favorite in the seventeenth century, is obsolete. The participle *abidden* is still found in the seventeenth century: What punishment he had *abidden* for his jealousy (COBLER OF CANTERBURY 1608.); as *bidden* is even now in use in Northern dialects. The change of the vowel of the preterite singular into the participle is old. The weak form *abided* is quoted by J. Wallis as well as *thrived*.

10. *slide*; *slid*; *slidden*, *slid* (WEBSTER). Anglosaxon *slīdan*; sing. *slād*, plur. *slidon*; *sliden*. Old-English *sliden*; sing. *slod*, *slode*, plur. *sliden*; *sliden*.

The preterite *slade* is in use in Northern dialects, as in Scotland in Ramsay.

11. *stride*; *strode*, *strid*; *stridden*, *strid* (WEBSTER). Anglosaxon *strīdan*; sing. *strād*, plur. *stridon*; *striden*. Old-English *striden*; sing. *strod*, *strode*, plur. *striden*; *striden*, *stridden*, *strid*.

Northern dialects have the preterite *stread*, others *strade*. Besides the still usual compound *bestride* the Old-English has also *umstride*.

12. *chide*, **chode*, *chid*; *chidden*, *chid*. Anglosaxon *cīdan*; sing. *cād*, plur. *cidon*; *ciden*. Old-English *chiden*; sing. *chod*, *chode*, plur. *chiden*; *chiden*, *chidden*.

Moreover this verb early receives the character of a weak verb, in spite of its participle *chidden*, since, in Piers Ploughman for instance the singular of the preterite runs *chidde*, *chydde*, so that the verb was assimilated to the weak *hīde* (Anglosaxon *hīdan*, *hydde*, *hyded*), which on the other hand assumed the strong participle *hīdden*. See above p. 341.

13. *rise*; *rose*; *risen*, **rose*. In Anglosaxon the simple verb is impersonal: *me riseð*, *deceat mihi*, *me*. The compounds are, on the contrary, personal, as *arisan* (Engl. *arise* &c.); sing. *ārās*, plur. *ārison*; *ārisen*. Old-English *risen*, *arisen*; sing. -*roos*, -*rose*, plur. -*risen*, also -*reson*, -*resyn* (HALLIWELL s. vv.); -*risen*, -*risse* (*riz* still vulgarly in London).

The preterite *riss*, *riz*, in J. Wallis *rise*, is often found in Beaumont and Fletcher. See Sternberg The Dial. of Northamptonshire p. 87; and is still in use in different dialects. The participle with the *o*: *rose* still occurs in Fielding: He had *rose* pretty early this morning.

In the transition into the first class is comprised:

14. *strike*; **strook*, *struck*; *stricken*, **strucken*, *struck*. Anglosaxon *strīcan*; sing. *strāc*, plur. *stricon*; *stricen*, *ire*, *caedere*. Old-English

stricken; sing. strook, strake, plur. striken, strekyn (HALLIWELL v. streke), also stroke (PERCY Rel. p. 3. II.); striken, strike, strekyne.

The preterite *strake*, *strook*, *strooke* were still common in the seventeenth century; *strook* has been preserved the longest, in Northern dialects *streuk*. Shakspeare, who has the preterite *struck*, uses the participles *stricken*, *strucken* and *struck*. *Strucken* stands in: The clock hath *strucken* twelve upon the bell (Com. of Err. 1. 1. Coll.). Even the most modern times have *stricken*, and that not merely where it is used adjectively, as in mind-stricken, thunder-stricken &c. Compare: From the spot where I was *stricken* (L. BYRON).

There has been partly preserved:

15. *cleave*; *clave* and *cleaved*; *cleaved*, of which also *clave* is upon the point of being lost. Anglosaxon *clifan*; sing. *cláf*, plur. *clifon*; *clifen*. In Modern-English it coincides in the infinitive and present with *cleave*, which has likewise almost completely passed into the weak form, but which belonged to the next strong class, Anglosaxon *cleofan*. Old-English *clyven* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 215.); *clave* (CHESTER PLAYS 2, 70.). The one mingles, even in Old-English, with forms of the other verb.

Of the sixth class there have passed into the fifth and partly assimilated to the verb *drive*:

16. *rive*; *rived*; *riven*. Anglosaxon *reofan*; sing. *reáf*, plur. *rufon*; *rofen*, *findere*. Old-English *rifen*, *riven*; sing. *rofe*, *roofe*, *rafe* (PERCEVAL 2157.) . . . ; *ryffen* (TOWNEL. MYST.), *to-revyne* (HALLIWELL v. sleve), *roven* (ID. v. rove). The maritime *reeve*; *rove*; *rove*, would agree with this.

Northern dialects still have the preterite *raav* and therewith *rave*, like the Scottish. The *rafte*, occurring in Chaucer, belongs to the weak Anglosaxon verb *reafjan*, whence the Modern-English *bereave*, Anglosaxon *bereafjan*.

To a verb of this class its strong participle is still sometimes given:

17. *wriþe* and commonly *wreath* (wreathe); *wreathed*; *wreathed* and *wreathen*, formerly *wriþen*. Anglosaxon *wriþan*; sing. *wrāþ*, plur. *wriþon*; *wriþen*, *wreōþen*. Old-English *wriþen*; preterite *wriþe* (PERCY Rel. p. 75. II.). Yet even early in the weak form *wrythed* (HALLIWELL v. writhe); part. *wriþen*. This participle is still in use in the North of England.

The Old-English possessed other verbs of this class, few traces whereof have been preserved in modern times, except in dialects: *ssryuen* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *shriven*; sing. *ssrof*, *shrof*, *shrove*, also *shrave*, plur. *shriven*; *shriven*, *yssryue*. Anglosaxon *scrifan*; sing. *scraf*, plur. *scrifon*; *scrifen*. Modern-English *to shrive. — *shiten*; sing. *shote* (compare *be-shote* LANCASTER), plur. *shiten*; *shiten*, *shitten*. Dictionaries disdain this popular word, which now sounds in general *shite*; *shit*; *shitten*. — *atwiten*; sing. *atwot*, plur. *atwiten*; *atwiten*. Anglosaxon *ātvtan*; sing. *-vāt*, plur. *-vitan*; *-viten*, *exprobare*, compounded of *vitan*, now, strange to say, *to twit* with rejection of the *a*. — *gliden*; sing. *glod*, *glode*, plur. *gliden*; *gliden*: Modern-English *to glide*. — *gripen*, *grypen*; *grip* (BEVES or HAMTOUN p. 90 and in WEBER) (which moreover early had weak forms: *gripte* [ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 22.]) with an apparent transition into the following class, is remarkable. Anglosaxon *gripan*; sing.

grāp. plur. gripon; gripen. Modern-English to gripe: like *repen*; sing. *repe*, plur. *ropen*: *ropen* (Modern-English to *reap*), which points not only to the Anglosaxon *ripan*; sing. *rāp*, plur. *ripon*, *ripen*, but also to a verb *reōpan*; sing. *reāp*, plur. *rupon*; *ropen*, which is wanting in Anglosaxon. Therewith is associated *bleven*, *blewyn* (HALLIWELL s. v.); *bleef* (CAXTON) from the Anglosaxon *be-lifan*; sing. -lāf, plur. -lifon; -lifēn, *manere*, whereas the weak forms *blefede* and *bleft* point to the Anglosaxon *belæfan*.
- We often find *steyen*, *stigen* (*astygen*, *astyen*); sing. *stey*, *stay*, *steigh*, *stegh*, but also frequently the weak forms *stighide*, *stiede*, *steyed*; see Dial. of Craven 2. p. 165. Anglosaxon *stigan*; sing. *stāh*, plur. *stigon*; *stigen*. The change into the weak form seems generally old; compare also *swiken*, *beswiken*; *swykede*; *swuken* in Halliwell; Anglosaxon *svican*; sing. *svāc*, plur. *svicon*; *svicen*. Other forms are preserved in dialects.

Sixth Class. The few verbs of this class which have been preserved in the literary language have become undistinguishable in Modern-English, others have passed wholly or partially into the weak conjugation. The Anglosaxon offers here in the present &c. *ed*, rarely *ū*, in the preterite sing. *ed*, plur. *u*, and in the perfect participle *o*. The Old-English gives to the present *e*, to the preterite sing. *ee* or *e*, plur. *o* (where *e* sometimes penetrates from the sing.) and the perfect participle *o*. Modern-English has in the present *ee*, *ea*, but does not here let the *o*-sound enter, and gives *o* equally to the preterite and the participle. The interchange of *s* and *r* in some of these verbs is taken away in Modern-English and partly even in Old-English in favour of the *s*. Verbs with a final *h*, *v* have passed into the seventh class.

1. *freeze*; *froze*; *frozen*, **froze*. Anglosaxon *freōsan*, *frīsan*; sing. *freās*, plur. *fruron*; *froren*. Old-English *frezen*; sing. *frees*, *frese* (*frez* Bedfordshire dialect), plur. *froren*? (Dialectically *a-vraur*, Somerset); *froren*, *yfrore*, *before* (GOWER in Halliwell s. v.), *a-vrore* in Western dialects, *forforon* in Caxton.

The shortened form of the participle *froze* is found in Shakespeare and Young N. 3.

2. *seethe*; *sod*; *sodden*, **sod*, forms, which now, along with *seethed*, *seethed* begin to be obsolete. Anglosaxon *seōðan*, *siōðan*; sing. *seað*, plur. *sudon*; *soden*. Old-English *sethen*; sing. *sethe*, plur. *soden*, *sode* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 408.); *soden*, *ysode*, *sothen* (Reliq. Ant. I. 82.).

The weak form *seethed* is in use for the preterite and participle even in the seventeenth century. See J. Wallis p. 118. Shakespeare, among others, has the abbreviated participle *sod*: Twice *sod* simplicity (Love's L. L. 4, 2.).

3. *cleave*; *clove*, **clave*; *cloven*, now also wholly passed into the weak conjugation: *cleft*; *cleft* see p. 343. Anglosaxon *cleōfan*, *clūfan*; sing. *cleāf*, plur. *clufon*; *cloven*. Old-English *clefen*, *cleven*; sing. *clef*, *cleef*, also *clafe* (HALLIWELL s. v.), plur. *cloven*; *cloven*.
4. *heave*; **hove*; **hoven*, **hove*, in modern times *heaved*; *heaved*. The Anglosaxon has here *hebban*; sing. *hōf*, plur. *hōfon*; *hafen*, which belonged to the fourth class, and with which the Modern-English forms agree. The Old-English ones, on the contrary, at least in

part, refer us to the form *heofan* (1), which Ettmüller lays at the root of *heofod*; sing. *heáf*, plur. *hufon*; *hofen*. although Rob. of Gloucester likewise presents the present *hebbe* I. 17. Old-English *heven* and *hufe* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 32.), which agrees only with *heofan* = *hufan*; sing. *hefe* (HALLIWELL s. v.) and *hafe* (ID.), *haf* (CHAUCER 2430.), *hof* (HAVELOCK 2747.), plur. *hofen*, *hoven*; *hofen*, *hoven*, *hove*.

The participle *hove* still occurs in moderns, as Milton.

5. *choose*; *chose*; *chosen*, **chose*. Anglosaxon *ceósan*; sing. *ceás*, plur. *curon*; *coren*. Old-English *chesen*; *ches*, *chees*, *chis* (WEBER); plur. *chose* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *cheson* (ID.), formerly probably also *coren*; *coren* (GUY OF WARWICK p. 428.), *icore* (A. BRANDAN p. 33.), *chosen*, *ychose*, *ichose* (even ROB. OF GLOUCESTER).

The participial form *chose* is in Shakespeare and Milton. In the seventeenth century the weak form *choosed* is also cited by grammarians for the preterite and participle. In the older Scotch the preterite *cheisit* also occurs. The infinitive *chese* still prevails, in Lancashire for instance, *cheise* in Scottish.

6. *lose*; now passed into the weak form *lost*; *lost*; traces of the participle in *forlorn*, *lasslorn*. See p. 343. Anglosaxon *leósan*; sing. *leás*, plur. *luron*; *loren*. Old-English *lesen*; sing. *les*, *lees* (thou *lore* ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), plur. *loren*, *lore*; *loren*, *lorn*, *lorne* (*forlore*), *ylore*, yet also even *lost* (PIERS PLOUGHM.).

7. *shoot*; likewise weak *shot*; *shot*, **shotten*. Anglosaxon *sceótan*; sing. *sceát*, plur. *scuton*; *scoten*. Old-English *scheten*; yet also *shoten*; sing. *schet*, plur. *shotten* (PIERS PLOUGHM.), yet *shete* even in Rob. of Gloucester; *shoten*, *yssote* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER). See p. 346.

With this class agrees the strong participle *rotten*, belonging to *rot* (compare Anglosaxon *reótan*; sing. *reát*, plur. *ruton*; *roten*, *plorare*, the stem of *rotjan*, *putrescere*), Old-English *roten*. Yet the strong participial form may have been given to the weak verb. Other verbs of this class are still to be pointed out, at least in single Old-English forms: *crepen* see above *creep*. — *fleten*; preterite *flete* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); part. *floten* (= distant? GAWAYNE). Anglosaxon *fleótan*; sing. *fleát*, plur. *fluton*; *floten*. Modern-English to float. — *shoven*; sing. *shof*, *shofe*, plur. *shoven*; *shoven*. Anglosaxon *sceófan*; *scúfan*; sing. *sceáf*, plur. *scufon*; *scofen*, Modern-English to shove, seems like *choose*, *lose* &c. to have early assumed the *o* in the present. — *loken*, to lock, has the strong participle *loken*, *beloke*, *biloke*. Anglosaxon *lúcān*; sing. *leác*, plur. *lucon*; *locen*, alongside whereof *lokede* from the weak form of the preterite usually occurs. Modern-English to lock. — *leyen*, *lien*, has in the preterite *leghe*, *leighe*; *fleyen*, *fleen*; *fleghe*, *fleigh*, *flaugh* &c., plur. *flowen*, as the participle *lowen* and *flowen* also occur. Anglosaxon *leogan*, *fleogan*; sing. *leáh*, *fleáh*, plur. *lugon*, *flugon*; *logen*, *flogen*, whereas now *to fly* has passed into the seventh class, like others of the sixth class in Old English. *Teen* to draw, preterite *tegh* also occur. Anglosaxon *teóhan*, *teon*; sing. *teáh*, plur. *tugon*; *togen*.

Seventh Class. This and the following class comprise the verbs which originally repeated the initial sound of the verbal stem before it in the preterite, therefore the reduplicative verbs. This redupli-

cation is however, hardly more to be met with in Anglosaxon; but, through the blending of the syllable before the stem, arising from this reduplication, the two classes of verbs have arisen, whereof one presents *ed*, the other *é* in the preterite.

In Anglosaxon the first of these, which is here cited as the seventh, has various vowels in the present: *ea, á, ed, é, ó*; in the preterite sing. and plur. *eo*; in the perfect participle *ea, d, ó*. Old-English, like Modern-English, mostly has in the present obscure vowels, corresponding to the Anglosaxon ones: *a, o*; in the preterite sing. and plur. the vowel *e*, appears in Old-English, which likewise always appears in Modern-English, except in the verb *beat*. Yet with the proportionably greater number of verbs ending in *r*, the *v* has been softened and gives with *e* the diphthong *ew*. Since also verbs of other classes, ending in *g* or *v*, readily blended their softened consonant with the preceding vowel into *ew*, many others must be regarded as passed over into this class. The participle of the perfect has nothing characteristic, except that it appropriates the vowel of the present, although not without exception, as is the case also with the corresponding Anglosaxon verbs. Moreover many verbs have only preserved the strong participial form in Modern-English.

1. *beat; beat; beaten, beat*. Anglosaxon *beátan; beót; beáten*. Old-English *beten; bete*, but also *bette* (PIERS PLOUGHM.); *beten, ybete, bete, bet*.

The Old-English form *bette* shews a passing over into the weak conjugation. The participle *beat* no longer often cited. Compare on the other hand: Had your heart newer *beat* for any of the noble youth? (L. BRON).

2. *fall; fell; fallen (fall'n often with poets)*, in composition mostly *befal; befel; befallen*. Anglosaxon *feallan; feóll, feallen*. Old-English *fallen; fel, fil, fille; fallen*.

The invasion of the vowel of the preterite into the participle is remarkable: Sure some disaster has *befel*; Speak, nurse! I hope the boy is well? (GAR). The participle *fell* is said to belong to the Londoner of the lower sphere.

3. *hold; held; holden, held; likewise behold &c.* Anglosaxon *healdan, behealdan; heöld; healden*. In Old-English we often find here an interchange of vowels in the singular and plural of the preterite, and even of the present: *halden, holden* (halt 3. pers. sing. pres., plur. *holden* PIERS PLOUGHM.); pret. sing. *hult, bihuld*, plur. *hulde* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), sing. *heeld*, plur. *helden* (PIERS PLOUGHM.), also sing. *halde*, plur. *halden* (HALLIWELL); part *holden, hold, at-held* (HALLIWELL s. v.).

The participles *upholden* and *withholden* pass as obsolete. Shakspeare has the participles *held* and *holden* alongside each other. As *fill* alongside of *fell*, so *hild* occurs alongside of *hold* (see HALLIWELL s. v.) and is still to be met with in dialects.

4. *blow; blew; blown*. Anglosaxon *blávan; bleóv; bláven, flare*. The English verb *blow*, belongs to the Anglosaxon *blôvan, florere*, which was probably likewise a strong verb (*bleóv; blôven*), so that both might coincide in their forms. Old-English *blawen* (HALLIWELL s. v.), *blowen; blew; blowen, yblowe, blow, blawun* (ID.).

5. *throw; threw; thrown.* Anglosaxon *prâvan; preóv; prâven.* Old-English *thrawen, throwen; threw; throwen, throw.*
6. *know; knew; known.* Anglosaxon *cnâvan; cneóv; cnâven.* Old-English *knawen, knowen; knew, knowen, know, þeknawe.*
7. *crow; crew; *crown, crowed.* In Anglosaxon the corresponding word does not occur, but is to be inferred: *crâvan; creóv; crâven.* Old-English *crawen; crew, creew (MAUNDEV.); crowen; crowe.*
8. *grow; grew; grown.* Anglosaxon *grôvan; greóv; grôven.* Old-English *growen; grew; growen, grofen (HALLIWELL s. v.).*

Among the verbs in *ow*, inclining to the formation of a weak preterite, is *grow* in the olden time: It *growed* to a gret tree (MAUNDEV. p. 117.). Though never green *growed* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 275.); for which also *grov* stands, for instance TOWNEL. MYST. p. 12. The employment of the weak forms *blowed, throwed, drawed* (COBBETT) &c. is therefore not new. In the seventeenth century *blow'd, throw'd, crow'd, draw'd* &c. passed among grammarians as preterites and participles with a warrant equal to that of the strong forms.

The following verbs have in Modern-English exchanged their strong preterite with the weak one:

9. *hew; hewed; hewn and hewed.* Anglosaxon *heávan; heóv; heáven.* Old-English *hewen; hew; hewen.* Anglosaxon also has a weak verb *heavjan.*
10. *mow; moved; mown and mowed.* Anglosaxon *mâvan; meóv; mâven.* Old-English *moven; mew; mowen.* The preterite *mew* is still in use in Northern and East-Anglian dialects.
11. *sow; sowed; sown and sowed.* Anglosaxon *sâvan; seóv; sâven.* Old-English *sowen; sew; sowen, sow.* The preterite *sew* is found in several dialects, as in Lincolnshire.

The two following verbs have weak forms in Anglosaxon, but seem to have been early assimilated to the preceding ones in the participle:

12. *show; shew; showed, shewed; shown.* Anglosaxon *scavjan, sceavjan; -ôde; -ôd, aspicere.* Old-English, and commonly, *shewen; shewed (sheud HALLIWELL s. v.); shewed; but in Old-Scottish schaw; participle schawin.* Dialectically even the preterite *shew* shews itself in Essex.
13. *strew, strow, even *straw* still in Northern dialects; *strewed, strowed; strewn, strown, strowed, strewed.* Anglosaxon *strevjan, streárvjan, streórvjan; -ôde, -ôd.* Old-England *strewen; strewed; strewed (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 180.).*

There have passed over out of the fourth class on account of their final guttural sound:

14. *draw; drew; drawn.* Anglosaxon *dragan; drôg; dragen.* Old-English *drawen, dray (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 49.); droȝ, drowȝ, drogh, drough, drow, drw (= drew); drawen, drawe, drayne (HALLIWELL s. v.).*
15. *slay; slew; slain.* Anglosaxon *slahan, sleahan, slagan, contracted slean, slân; shlôh, plur. slôgon; slagen, slâgen, slegen.* Old-English

sleen, slee, sle, sla, slone, sloo, slo (DAME SIRIZ p. 7.); slowgh, slough, slou (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER pl. slowe), slow, slew; slawen, yslawe, slawe, sloon (HALLIW. s. v.), slain.

Both verbs are treated analogously in Old-English, yet the contracted Anglosaxon forms of the latter had preponderant influence; the entrance of the *ew* in the preterite is more modern than that of other forms.

16. *fly*; *flew*; *flown*. Anglosaxon *fleoġan*; sing. *fleaĥ*, plur. *flugon*; *flagen*, volare, which mingled with *fleoĥan*, *fleoġon*; sing. *fleaĥ*, plur. *flugon*; *flagen*, fugere, although English has partly distributed the meaning between *flee* (see above) and *fly*. In Old-English they are still less to be separated than in Modern-English. Old-English *fleen*, *flee*, *fle*, *flene*, *flyne*, *fley*; *fleghe*, *fleigh*, *fleih*, *flaugh*, *flew*; *flyowe* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *fleyne* (ID.), *flaine*.

Some verbs of this class, which Old-English still exhibits alongside of others which have passed over into others are: *wepen*, see above to *weep* p. 342. — *falden*, *folden*; *feld*; *folden*, *fold* (unfolden), Anglosaxon *fealdan*, whence the participle *folden* reaches into Modern-English. Modern-English to *fold*. — *walken*; *welke* (PASCHEVAL 209.), *ivit*; *walke*, *wolke*. Anglosaxon *wealcen*; *wealc*; *wealcen*. Modern-English to *walk*. — From the fourth class there passes over occasionally *gnawen*; *gnaw* (thus still in Suffolk) alongside of *gnoghe*, *gnowe*; *gnawen*. Anglosaxon *gnagan*; *gnog*; *gnagen*. Modern-English to *gnaw*. See above p. 367. — *dawen*; *dewe* (HALLIWELL s. v.) points to an Anglosaxon *dagan*; *dog*; *dagen* which cannot be shewn. Modern-English to *dawn*. The dialectical *sneiw*, *snown*, from *snawen*, is perhaps only an unjustified imitation; Anglosaxon knows only *snivan*, sing. *snāv*, plur. *snivon*; *sniven*, and the verb to *snow* seems denominative. From the sixth class the preterite *brew* (PIERCE PLOUGHM. p. 90.) belongs here, although the plural of the preterite *broue* occurs in Rob. of Gloucester and the participle *broven* elsewhere. Anglosaxon *bréowan*; sing. *bréav*, plur. *bruvon*; *broven*. Modern-English to *brew*.

Eighth Class. This second class of originally reduplicated verbs has no longer a verb to exhibit in Modern-English, the verb *hang*, which belonged here, having passed over into the first strong conjugation. In Anglosaxon the present has *a*, *á*, *æ*, the preterite sing. and plur. *ē*, the perfect participle *a*, *á*, *æ*. Old-English gave *e* to the preterite and preserved to the participle the vowel of the present.

Old-English verbs of the class are: *hangen*, *hongen*, mostly transitive, yet also intransitive; *henge*, *hinge*; *hangen*, *hongen*, *honge*. Anglosaxon *hangan*; *hēng*; *hangen*. Modern-English *hang*; *hung*; *hung*. Yet the intransitive is early in use *hangen*, *hongen*; *hanged*; *hanged* &c. Anglosaxon *hangjan*; *-ōde*; *-ōd*, *pendere*, mingled with the strong verb. — *fangen*, *fongen*; *feng*, *aveng* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); *fangen*, *fongen*, *capere* *accipere*. Anglosaxon *fangan*, *fōn*; *fēng*; *fangen*, yet here *o* early presses into the preterite: *fong* and even the weak form: *underfonged* (PIERCE PLOUGHM.). — *gangen* see irregular verb *go*. — *greten*; *grete*; *greten*, *grete*, also *igroten*. Anglosaxon *grætan*; *grēt*; *græten*, whence still *greit*, preterite *grat* in Northern dialects and Scotland, with the participle *grutten*.

Others have passed over into the weak conjugation, as *haten*. See *hight* p. 352. *laten*, see p. 350. *slepen*, see p. 342. Even in Old-English *dreden*, *adreden* has degenerated, participle *drad*, *adrad*, but also *adred* (RITSON). Modern-English *adread*. Anglosaxon *ā-drædan*; *-drēd*; *-dræden*.

Irregular Verbs.

Under this name we comprehend a number of verbs whose anomalies are not explained by the linguistic processes hitherto discussed. Here belong:

- a) The verb *be*, springing from several verbal stems. Anglosaxon *beón*.

Present Indicative.				Conjunctive.			
S. 1.	2.	3.	Pl. 1. 2. 3.	S. 1. 2. 3.	Pl. 1. 2. 3.		
<i>am</i>	<i>art</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>be</i>		
Angl. <i>eom</i>	<i>eart</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>sind (sindon, sint)</i>	<i>sie (sig, si, seó)</i>	<i>sien (sin)</i>		
<i>beom</i>	<i>bist</i>	<i>bið</i>	<i>beoð</i>	<i>beo</i>	<i>beon</i>		
Old-Engl. <i>am</i>	<i>art (arte)</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>aren (arn)</i>		
	<i>bist, byste</i>	<i>bep</i>	<i>bep, beth, beyth</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>ben (be)</i>		
	<i>(beys, bep)</i>	<i>bez</i>	<i>and ben, be (sinden ORMUL.)</i>				

Preterite Indicative.				Conjunctive.			
S. 1.	2.	3.	Pl. 1. 2. 3.	S. 1. 2. 3.	Pl. 1. 2. 3.		
<i>was</i>	<i>wast</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>were</i>	<i>were</i>	<i>wert were</i>	<i>were</i>	
	<i>(wert)</i>						
Angl. <i>vās</i>	<i>værē</i>	<i>vās</i>	<i>væron</i>	<i>være</i>		<i>værēn</i>	
Old-Engl. <i>wes (D. Sir.) was</i>	<i>were</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>weren</i>	<i>were</i>		<i>weren</i>	
			<i>(were)</i>			<i>(were)</i>	

Infinitive	Imperative.	Pr. Part.	Perf. Part.
<i>be</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>being</i>	<i>been</i>
Angl. <i>teón</i>	<i>s. beó pl. beoð</i>	<i>beónde</i>	—
<i>vēsan</i>	<i>vēs</i>	<i>vēsað</i>	<i>gevēsen</i>
Old-Engl. <i>beon, ben (bene)</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>beth</i>	<i>yben, ben, be, abyn</i> (HALL. s. v.)

Modern-English has in general use given up a number of forms, still possessed by Old-English. Moreover the forms from *be* have not been given up in poetry, where *beest* also occurs for the conjunctive. *Be*, *beest*, *bee*, plur. *bee*, are given by J. Wallis as regular forms for the conjunctive, yet also for the indicative: If thou *beest* Stephano, touch me (SHAKSP. Temp.). If thou *beest* he (MILTON P. L. I. 84.); particularly in the plural: There *be* some sports are painful (SHAKSP. Temp.). Those *be* rubies (ID. Mids. N. Dr.). And who *be* they (L. BYRON). There *be* more things to greet the heart and eyes (ID.). — *Bez* instead of *beth* in the singular in Longloft's Chron. p. 244. *Bees* as 3. pers. sing. and 1. 2. 3. pers. plur. is frequent in the Towneley Mysteries. *Thou beys* Skelton still has, as he also still employs *be* for the second person plural: Ye *be* an apte man (L. 36.), whereas it was subsequently frequently used for the third person. The plural *beth*: We *beth* bretheren (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 391.), is still found in Skelton as *beyth*. *Be* for the first person, as well as for all others of the singular and plural of the indicative, not merely of the present, is peculiar to many dialects. *Bin*, which proceeds from the plural *ben*, stands dialectically for *are*, *were* and *is*; it is also found for *is* in ancient dramatists. Chalmers quotes out of Shakspeare:

With every thing that pretty *bin*, and Lord Byron writes: There *bin* another pious reason. *Be* instead of *been* is still familiar to the sixteenth century: THE PARDONER AND THE FREERE p. 95. For *is*, *es* sometimes occurs in Old-English (HALLIWELL v. fame 2.). — In the preterite *was* and *wert* are subsequent formations; although the latter at present passes for the conjunctive, yet even now as well as formerly it still stands as the indicative form: *Wert* thou alone? (CONGREVE). Thou *wert* godlike E'en then (ID.). Thou *wert* the throne and grave of empires (L. BYRON). When all were changing thou alone *wert* true (ID.). I turned to thee, for thou *wert* near (BRYANT). Instead of *was*, *was* formerly occurs: Sithene *was* thou straynede one the crosse (Mss. in HALLIWELL v. straine); *waste* in Skelton l. 260. The genuine verbal form *thou were* is still in Shakspeare (K. Lear.). *Was* as 2. pers. plur. often occurs: I'll pepper you better than ever *you was* peppered (FIELDING). It is here and there regarded as the regular form. The employment of *am*, as well as of *be*, for all persons: *he'm*, *we'm*, *you'm* &c. in Northampton, Bedford, Somerset &c., is dialectical, as also *are* occurs for the singular: *I are*, *he are* &c. The rejection of the initial vowels of the verb has pressed from the popular into the written language: *I'm* in love (LONGFELLOW). Thou '*rt* gone (BRYANT). You '*re* a child (L. BYRON). She '*s* in Madrid (LONGFELLOW). How '*s* this? (ID.), as *n'as* instead of *no was*, *was not* are found.

b) The verb *do*. Anglosaxon *dôn*.

Present Indicative.					Conjunctive.				
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.			
Angl. <i>dô</i>	<i>dêst</i>	<i>dêð</i>	<i>dôð</i>		<i>dô</i>	<i>dôn</i>			
Old-Engl. <i>doest</i> , <i>dest</i>		<i>dop</i> , <i>dooth</i>	<i>dop</i> , <i>dooth</i> , <i>don</i> , <i>doon</i> , <i>doen</i> , <i>do</i>		<i>do</i>	<i>don</i> , <i>doon</i> , <i>doe</i> <i>doen</i> , <i>doe</i> , <i>do</i>			
	(R. OF GL.)								

Preterite Indicative.					Conjunctive.				
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.			
Angl. <i>did</i>	<i>didst</i>	<i>did</i>	<i>did</i>		<i>did</i>	<i>did</i>			
Old-Engl. <i>dide</i>	<i>didest</i>	<i>dide</i>	<i>didon</i>		<i>didē</i>	<i>didēn</i>			
	<i>dide</i> , <i>dude</i> , <i>didest</i> , <i>dudest</i>	<i>dide</i> , <i>didon</i>	<i>dide</i> , <i>didon</i>		<i>dide</i> , <i>didē</i>	<i>diden</i> , <i>dide</i>			
	(R. OF GL.) <i>diddest</i>	<i>dude</i> , <i>dide</i> , <i>dude</i>	<i>dude</i> , <i>dide</i> , <i>dude</i>		<i>dude</i>	<i>duden</i> , <i>dude</i>			

Infinitive.	Imper.	Part. Pres.	Perfect.
Angl. <i>dôn</i>	<i>dô</i>	<i>doing</i>	<i>done</i>
Old-Engl. <i>don</i> , <i>doon</i> , <i>doone</i> , <i>doe</i> , <i>do</i>	<i>dô</i> , <i>dôð</i> <i>do</i> , <i>doth</i> , <i>dooth</i>	<i>doande</i> , <i>doand</i> , <i>doing</i>	<i>gedôn</i> <i>ydon</i> , <i>doon</i> , <i>ydo</i> , <i>do</i>

Modern-English Grammar no longer cites the older forms of the conjunctive; the indicative forms, where varying from these, are used for them. The forms *dost* and *doest* are now understood to be so distinct, that *doest* is to be used in a pregnant sense, *dost* as a periphrastic verbal form (auxiliary verb). The elision of the *o* in *do* is familiar to rapid speech in few contexts: „So soon returned!“ old Dobson cries. „So soon d'ye call it?“ Death replies (Mss. THRALE). Hence the popular verbs *don*, *dout*, *dup*, instead of *do on*, *out*, *up*, the two former of which occur in Shakspeare. Compare also: I would *don* my hose of homespun gray (LONGFELLOW). The spelling *doe* for *do* occurs even in the seventeenth century.

c) The verb *go*, which completes its preterite by another verbal stem, Anglosaxon *gangan*, *gân*, see p. 375.

Present Indicative.				Conjunctive.			
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		
<i>go</i>	<i>goest</i>	<i>goes</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>go</i>		
Angl. <i>gange</i> (<i>gâ</i>)	<i>gæst</i>	<i>gæs</i>	<i>gangâð</i> (<i>gâð</i>)	<i>gange</i> (<i>gâ</i>)	<i>gangen</i> (<i>gân</i>)		
Old-Engl. <i>go</i> , <i>go</i>	<i>goest</i>	<i>gooth</i> , <i>goth</i>	<i>gooth</i> , <i>goth</i>	<i>go</i> , <i>ga</i>	<i>gon</i> , <i>gange</i> (HALL. v. <i>gang</i>)		

Preterite Indicative.				Conjunctive.			
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.
<i>went</i>	<i>wentst</i> (<i>wentest</i>)	<i>went</i>	<i>went</i>	—	—		
Angl. <i>geóng</i>	<i>geóngē</i>	<i>geóng</i>	<i>geóngon</i>	—	—		
<i>eode</i>	<i>eodest</i>	<i>eode</i>	<i>eodon</i>	<i>eodē</i>	<i>eodēn</i>		
(vende from Angl. <i>vendan</i> , <i>ire</i>)	<i>vendest</i>	<i>vende</i>	<i>vendon</i>	<i>vendē</i>	<i>vendēn</i>		
Old-Engl. <i>eode</i> , <i>zeode</i> , <i>yode</i> , <i>yod, ude, yede</i> , <i>yeed</i> , <i>yead</i> <i>wende</i> , <i>wente</i> , <i>wendest</i> &c.	<i>eodest</i> &c.	<i>eode</i> &c.	<i>eoden</i> &c. <i>hedon</i> (HALL. s. v.)	<i>eode</i> <i>yode</i> &c.	<i>eoden</i> , <i>yoden</i> &c.		
<i>wende</i> , <i>wente</i> , <i>wendest</i> &c.	<i>wende</i> &c.	<i>wende</i> &c.	<i>wende</i> &c.	<i>wende</i> &c.	<i>wenden</i> &c.		

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Part. Pres.	Perfect.
<i>go</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>going</i>	<i>gone</i>
Angl. <i>gangan</i> , <i>gân</i>	<i>gang</i> (<i>gâ</i>), <i>gâð</i>	<i>gangende</i>	<i>gangen</i> (<i>gân</i>)
Old-Engl. <i>gagen</i> , <i>gongen</i> , <i>gange</i> , <i>gonge</i> , <i>go</i> , <i>gaa</i> , <i>ga</i> .	<i>go</i> , <i>goth</i>	<i>ganging</i>	<i>ygon</i> , <i>gon</i> , <i>ygo</i>

The fuller forms from *gangen* do not frequently occur in Old-English. For the preterite belonging to it there is frequently substituted, even in Anglosaxon, a weak verb of another stem: *eode*; the forms *yede*, *yeade* &c. still occur in Spenser, and even now *yewd* and *yod* are said to be in use in the North of England. The verb *wend*, which also occur in the present: If, maiden thou wouldst *wend* with me To leave both tower and town (W. SCOTT), underwent even in Old-English the transformation of the *de* into *t*. See above p. 348. In *ago* the old abbreviated participial form is still preserved: My sparowe is *go* (SKELTON l. 54.).

d) Finally there belong here a number of the so-called preterito-presentia, or past-presents, that is, those verbs in which an originally strong preterite enters as a present and receives a new preterite of the weak conjugation, which in Anglosaxon was formed after the first weak conjugation. They have been mostly incompletely preserved in Modern-English.

1. *can*.

Present Indicative.				Conjunctive.			
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		
<i>can</i>	<i>canst</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>can</i>	—	—		
Angl. <i>cann</i> (<i>can</i>)	<i>canst</i> (<i>cunne</i>)	<i>cann</i> (<i>can</i>)	<i>cunnon</i>	<i>cunnē</i>	<i>cunnēn</i>		
Old-Engl. <i>kan</i> , <i>can</i>	<i>canst</i>	<i>kan</i>	<i>konnen</i> , <i>conne</i> , <i>can</i>	<i>konne</i>	<i>konnen</i> , <i>conne</i>		

Preterite Indicative.					Conjunctive.			
	s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		
Anglos.	<i>could</i>	<i>couldst</i>	<i>could</i>	<i>could</i>	—	—		
	<i>cūðe,</i>	<i>cūðest</i>	<i>cūðe</i>	<i>cūðon</i>	<i>cūðē</i>	<i>cūðēn</i> (on)		
Old-Engl.	<i>kouthe,</i>	<i>koutheast,</i>	<i>kouthe,</i>	<i>koupen,</i>	<i>koupe,</i>	<i>kouthen,</i>	<i>couth,</i>	<i>couth,</i>
	<i>coude</i>	<i>coudest</i>	<i>coude</i>	<i>coude</i>	<i>coude</i>	<i>couden</i>		

Infinitive.		Imper.	Part. Pres.	Perfect.
<i>*con</i>		—	<i>*cunning</i>	—
Angl.	<i>cunnan, valere, posse, scire</i>			<i>cūð, gecūð</i>
Old-Engl.	<i>connen, conne.</i>		<i>connyng</i>	<i>couth, couð</i>

The infinitive *con* is still in use in the sense of to study, to commit to memory; obsolete in the sense of to know (still in Shakspeare); the perfect participle stands in the compound: *uncouth*. Anglosaxon *uncūd*, incognitus. The *l* in *could* has been inserted in modern times from a false analogy to *shall, will*. Skelton still writes without *l*: I would *ye coud* (l. 26.). The participle *cunning*, which sounds like the Anglosaxon substantive, is an adjective. As to the rejection of *st* in: Thou *can* (SKELTON l. 260. 263 &c.) see p. 331.

2. *dare*.

Present Indicative.					Conjunctive.			
	s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		
	<i>dare</i>	<i>darest</i>	<i>dares, dare</i>	<i>dare</i>	—	—		
Angl.	<i>dearr, dear</i>	<i>dearst,</i>	<i>dearr</i>	<i>durron</i>	<i>durrē</i>	<i>durrēn</i>		
Old-Engl.	<i>dar,</i>	<i>darst,</i>	<i>dar, dare</i>	<i>durren,</i>	<i>durre,</i>	<i>durren,</i>		
	<i>dare, dere</i>	<i>derst</i>		<i>dur</i>	<i>dore</i> (GOWER)	<i>durre</i>		
					in HALL. s. v.)			

Preterite Indicative.					Conjunctive.			
	s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		
	<i>durst</i>	<i>durst</i>	<i>durst</i>	<i>durst</i>	—	—		
Angl.	<i>dorste</i>	<i>dorstest</i>	<i>dorste</i>	<i>dorston</i>	<i>dorstē</i>	<i>dorstēn</i>		
Old-Engl.	<i>dorste</i>	<i>dorstest</i>	<i>dorste</i>	<i>dorsten, dorste</i>	<i>dorste</i>	<i>dorsten, dorste</i>		

Infinitive.		Imper.	Part. Pres.	Perfect.
<i>dare</i>		—	<i>daring</i>	<i>dared</i>
Anglos.	<i>durran</i>			
Old-Engl.	<i>durren, durne, durre, daren</i>			

The genuine third person of the present *dare* still occurs along with *dares* See p. 332. In the meaning of to challenge *dare* has wholly passed over into the regular weak conjugation: *dared; dared*. As to the rejection of the inflective termination of the second person present, as in: Thou *dare* (SKELTON l. 297.) see p. 332.

3. *shall*.

Present Indicative.					Conjunctive.			
	s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		
	<i>shall</i>	<i>shalt</i>	<i>shall</i>	<i>shall</i>	—	—		
Angl.	<i>sceal</i>	<i>scealt</i>	<i>sceal</i>	<i>sculon, sceolon</i>	<i>scylē</i> (scūle)	<i>scylēn</i>		
Old-Engl.	<i>shal,</i>	<i>shalt</i>	<i>shal,</i>	<i>shullen, shuln</i> (shullep)	<i>shul</i>	<i>shullen,</i>		
	<i>shall</i>		<i>shall</i>	R. OF GL. I. 3), <i>shul</i>		<i>shuln</i>		

Preterite Indicative.				Conjunctive.			
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.
<i>should</i>	<i>shouldst</i>	<i>should</i>	<i>should</i>	—	—	—	—
Angl. scolde	scoldest	scolde	scoldon	scoldē	scoldēn	scoldē	scoldēn
(sceolde)	(sceoldest)	(sceolde)	(sceoldon)	(sceoldē)	(sceoldēn)	(sceoldē)	(sceoldēn)
Old-Engl. sholde,	sholdest,	sholde,	sholden,	sholde,	sholden,	sholde,	sholden,
shulde	shuldest	shulde	shulden,	shulde	shulden,-e	shulde	shulden,-e

Infinitive.

Angl. sculan

In this verb the rejection of the *t* of the second person singular of the present was very frequent: Then *shal* thou se (HALLIWELL s. v. *slaght*), s. p. 331. The abbreviation of the *shall* into *læ*, *I'is*, *we's yeis* (*ye shall*), seems remarkable, as it occurs in Northern dialects and in Scottish. The *s* is the remnant of *shall*, with whose *ll* the preceding vowel also perished. We also find the verb shortened into *sh*: By Iys *Ish* lug the by the swete eares (THE PARDONER AND THE FRERE p. 122.). *Ish* knocke the on the costarde (ib.). *l* in the North of England and in Scotland is confessedly often thrown off.

4. *may*.

Present Indicative.				Conjunctive.			
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.
<i>may</i>	<i>mayst</i>	<i>may</i>	<i>may</i>	—	—	—	—
Angl. māg	meaht,	māg	magon	mage, māge	magēn, māgēn	mage, māge	magēn, māgēn
	miht	(mugon?)					
Old-Engl. (mow) may	myht,	may	mowen,	mowe	mowen	myht,	mowen,
	maiest,	mowe, mow,				maiest,	
	maist	may				maist	

Preterite Indicative.				Conjunctive.			
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.
<i>might</i>	<i>mightst</i>	<i>might</i>	<i>might</i>	—	—	—	—
Angl. meahte, mihte	meahtest,	meahte,	mealton,	meahtē,	meahtēn,	meahtē,	meahtēn,
	mihtest	mihte	mihton	mihtē	mihtēn	mihtē	mihtēn
Old-Engl. miȝte, moȝte,	miȝtest	might	miȝten	miȝte	miȝten	miȝte	miȝten
might, mought	&c.	&c.	&c.	&c.	&c.	&c.	&c.

Infinitive.

Angl. magan

Old-Engl. mowen, mowe (may?)

The old form of the second person singular of the indicative *myht* is still found a long time in Old-English: Amende thee, while thou *myght* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 228.). The rejection of the inflective termination is not rare: No thing thou *may* take fro us (MAUNDEV. p. 294.). As thou *may* se thy self (SKELTON l. 145.), s. p. 331. The forms in *ow*, *oz*, *ough* seem to have universally subsisted along with those in *ay*, *igh*, yet the latter might have been early more general. Rob. of Gloucester, for instance, has *miȝte*.

5. *will*. This incomplete so called auxiliary verb is to be entirely separated from the weakly inflected *to will*, Anglosaxon villjan; -ôde; -ôd, cupere.

Present Indicate.				Conjunctive.			
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		
<i>will</i>	<i>wilt</i>	<i>will</i>	<i>will</i>	—	—		
Angl. vilē (ville)	vilt	vilē (ville)	villað	vilē (ville)	villēn		
Old-Engl. wille, will	wilt	wille, will	willeth, willen, wiln,	wille	willen, wiln		
wole, wol	wolt	wole, wol	wollep, wollen, wol	wole &c.	wolen &c.		

Preterite Indicative.				Conjunctive.			
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		
<i>would</i>	<i>wouldst</i>	<i>would</i>	<i>would</i>	—	—		
Angl. volde	voldest	volde	voldon	voldē	voldēn (-on)		
Old-Engl. wolde	woldest	wolde	wolden	wolde	wolden		

Infinitive.

Angl. vislan.

The *o* has in Old-English early penetrated into the present (perhaps from the preterite) without the *i*'s being supplanted thereby. The latter is found alongside of the former: Ich *wille* the love (DAMES SIRIZ p. 5.). The forms in *o* are in Rob. of Gloucester. A remnant of the *o* is preserved by the language in *won't* or *wo' n't*, that is *wol not* instead of *will not*, which cannot have sprung from *would not*, as many think. *I wolle* is found even late (JACK JUGLER p. 9.). The more complete *wonot* see in Abbot: That I *wonot* (CRAVEN Dial. II p. 260.). The *ou* in the preterite did not gain more general diffusion till late. For the rejection of the inflection of the second person: *Thou will* (PERCY Rel 111. I.), see p. 331. The more rapid speech often throws off the stem of the verb down to the final sound, often the whole stem down to the inflection, after vowels before other parts of speech, particularly before a verb: I'll sigh and weep (SHAKSP. Two G. of Ver.). You'll disturb the abbot at his prayers (LONGFELLOW). We'll speak more largely Of Preciosa (ID.). I'd put a girdle round about the earth In forty minutes (SHAKSP. Mids. N. Dr.). Cock's soul! thou 'dst rather play (LONGFELLOW). — Old-English also possessed the negative verb arising by composition with *ne* and the rejection of the primitive *v*: *nille*, *nilt*, *nille* &c.; *noilde*, *noildest* &c.; *nolo*, *nolui*. Anglosaxon *nylle*, *nylt*, *nylle*; *nyllad*; *noilde* &c. Use is still made of it in Modern-English: Will he *will* he (SHAKSP. Hamlet 5, 1.). Will you *will* you (TAM. of the Shrew 2, 1.). To will or *will*, to thinke things good or bad Alike with me (B. JONSON Cataline); and hence still in the popular language: *willy nilly* = will ye will ye.

6. *mote. Of this only the preterite *must*, which even passes into the present signification, has remained in the more general use.

Present Indicative.					Conjunctive.	
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.
—	—	—	—		—	—
Angl. <i>môt</i>	<i>môst</i>	<i>môt</i>	<i>môton</i>		<i>motē</i>	<i>motēn</i>
Old-Engl. <i>mot, mote</i>	(<i>most</i>) <i>mote</i>	<i>mote</i>	<i>moten, mote,</i> <i>mot (R. OF GL.)</i>		<i>mote</i>	<i>moten</i>

Preterite Indicative.					Conjunctive	
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.
<i>must</i>	<i>must</i>	<i>must</i>	<i>must</i>		—	—
Angl. <i>môte</i>	<i>môstest</i>	<i>môte</i>	<i>môston</i>		<i>môtē</i>	<i>môtēn</i>
Old-Engl. <i>moste, most</i>	<i>mostest</i>	<i>moste, most</i>	<i>mosten, musten</i>		<i>moste</i>	<i>mosten</i>

Infinitive.

—
Angl. *môtan*

We still occasionally see use made of the ancient *mote*, yet partly without a clear consciousness of its grammatical nature: Whatever this grief *mote* be, which he could not control (L. BYRON). Compare Old-English: Men *mooten* given silver to the pore freres (CHAUCER 232.). Ever blissid *mot* thay be (TOWSEL. MYST. p. 293.). Amen! so *mot* hyt be! (History of Freemas. p. 36.).

7. *wit, is a verb now but little used in Modern-English, although very familiar to Old-English, whose infinitive *wit* still occurs in the chancery style and adverbially as *to wit*, videlicet. Alongside of it is placed the likewise obsolete infinitive form *to weet*, but to which *wot*, *wote* is falsely taken to be the preterite. Much unclarity prevails about the grammatical relations of these forms, which is easily removed by the ocular statement of their origin.

Present Indicative.					Conjunctive.	
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.
*wot	—	*wot	*wot		—	—
Angl. <i>vât</i>	<i>vâst</i>	<i>wât</i>	<i>viton</i>		<i>vitē</i>	<i>vitēn</i>
Old-Engl. <i>wot, wote</i>	<i>wost</i>	<i>wot,</i> <i>wotest</i>	<i>witen, weten</i> <i>wytep (HALL. v. wite),</i> <i>wytep (R. OF GL. I. 5.), woten, wote.</i>		<i>wite</i> &c.	<i>witen</i> &c.

Preterite Indicative.					Conjunctive.	
s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.		s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 1. 3.
*wist	—	*wist	*wist		—	—
Angl. <i>viste (visse)</i>	<i>vistest</i> (<i>vissest</i>)	<i>viste</i> (<i>visse</i>)	<i>viston</i> (<i>visson</i>)		<i>vistē</i> (<i>visse</i>)	<i>vistēn</i> (<i>visse</i>)
Old-Engl. <i>wiste, wyste, wuste, wuste (D. SIR. p. 4.)</i>	<i>wistest</i> &c.	<i>wiste</i> &c.	<i>wisten, wu-</i> <i>sten, wuste</i> (<i>R. OF GL.</i>)		<i>wiste</i> &c.	<i>wisten</i> &c.

	Infinitive.	Imper.	Part. Pres.	Perfect.
	* wit	—	—	—
Angl.	vitan	vitē, vitað	vitende	viten, geviten
Old-Engl.	witen, weten, wyte,		wittande,	
witt &c.	awet (HALL. s. v.)		unwitonde	

The verb *to wis* = to know, given in the dictionaries, is an assumption, which seems to find support in the frequent *I wis*. It has been already pointed out that this formula, Old-English *ywis*, was originally nothing else than the Anglosaxon *gewiss* = certus. The genuine *to wiss*, Old-English *wissen*, is the Anglosaxon weak verb *visjan*, *vissjan*, *regere*, *docere*, whose meaning it also retains, and has originally naught to do with the one before us. Modern poets use our verb here and there. Shakspeare has, *I wot, you wot, they wot*, and has even formed a participle *wotting* (WINTER'S TALE 3, 2. ed. Collier). Of the moderns compare: God *wot* (H. WALPOLE). How is that young . . . Gaditana That you both *wot* of? (LONGFELLOW). Sudden he gazed and *wist* not what to do (PARNELL). They laid them in the place of graves, yet *wist* not whose (bones) they were (BRYANT). — The old forms *wotest*, *woteth*, *wyteth*, as well as those with *o* in the plural of the present, belong to an unwarrantable assimilation. — Old-English has also a negative verb, whence *niste*, *nisten*. Anglosaxon *nāt*, *nāst*, *niton* &c.; *nisse*, *niste* &c.; *nescire*.

8. To this class belongs, finally, the verb *owe*, Anglosaxon *āgan*, properly to hold, then: to owe, be indebted. In these meanings the preterite that has become a present is now conjugated weakly, and furnished with a preterite and participle *owed*; *owed*; and therewith remains to it *ought* with the same significations, resting upon the Anglosaxon preterite. Besides, the preterite *ought* appears in the sense of a present and preterite with the meaning of duty or of necessity. We disregard the weak forms *owe*; *owed*; *owed*, and only give the English forms founded immediately upon the Anglosaxon. Old-English has moreover annexed the meaning of indebtedness and necessity to the present and preterite, and used this preterite even in the present sense. Compare: GUY OF WARWICK p. 7. CHAUCER 11934.

Present Indicative.					Conjunctive.		
	s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	
Angl.	āh	āgē	āh	āgon	āgē	āgēn	
Old-Engl.	awe,	(awe?)	awe	awen	awe,	awen,	
	owe		owe	owen, owe	owe	owen	

Preterite Indicative.					Conjunctive.		
	s. 1.	2.	3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	s. 1. 2. 3.	pl. 1. 2. 3.	
	<i>ought</i>	<i>oughtest</i>	<i>ought</i>	<i>ought</i>	—	—	
Angl.	āhte	āhtest,	āhte	āhton	—	—	
Old-Engl.	ahte, ahte, ahte,	ahtest, aughtest,	ahte, aughte,	ahton, aughten,	aughte &c.	aughten &c.	
	auhte, aughte,	oughtest	oughte	oughten,			
	te, ought		&c.	oughte			

Infinitive	Part. Pres.	Perfect.
<i>owe</i>	<i>owing</i>	<i>ought</i> (SPELMAN)
Angl. <i>âgan</i>	<i>âgende</i>	<i>âgen</i>
Old-Engl. <i>awen, owen, owe</i>	<i>owing</i>	<i>owen, owne</i>

The Old-English also used *ought* as an impersonal verb, like oportet: Wel *ought* us werche, and idelnesse withstond (CHAUCER 15482. Tyrwh.).

Among the lost preterito-presentia of the Anglosaxon is *unnan*, pres. ann; pret. *ûde*; part. *geunnen*, amare, largiri; and *munan*, pres. man (plur. munon); pret. *munde*; part. *munen*; cogitare, putare; which answers to the Old-norse *munu*; pres. *mun*, plur. *munum*. The latter served, like the Greek *υέλλειν* to form the periphrastic future. With that agrees the Old-English *mon, mun, moun*: Where I am ye *moun* not come (WICLIFFE Joh. VII.). Ye *moun* not serve God and riches (M. MATTH. VI.), which Chaucer presents several times in Tyrwhitt's edition, where Wright has *may*. This form might certainly be also equivalent to *mowen* (from *may*); yet it is remarkable that even now they say in the North of England *munne*, *munto*, *munna*, which is usually explained by *must I, thou, he*; ye *mun* do it etc. I dare not claim unconditionally the Anglosaxon *munan* for this form. Even the preterito-presents *purfan*, pres. sing. *pearf*, plur. *purfon*; pret. *porfte*, indigere, opus habere, is lost. We may, however, presume this verb in the Old-English *tharen, tharne* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 126.), in which *f* has been cast off, as it likewise does not appear in the corresponding Danish *turde*. Compare: What *thar* the recch or care How merily that other folkes fare? (CHAUCER 5911.) as so often impersonally, but also personally: He *thar* nat weene wel that evyl doth (M. 4318.). The *a* of the infinitive comes from the present. Compare also HALLIWELL S. VV. *thare, tharne*.

Compound and Periphrastic Tenses.

The poverty of the English language in inflective forms of the verb renders the use of auxiliary verbs necessary to determine more particularly, partly the relations of the activity to the sphere of time, partly the subjective relation of the speaker to the predicate, finally, to gain passive tenses.

We are wont to term *have, be, shall, will, can, may, do, ought, must, let* auxiliary verbs. We do this on the one hand, so far as they do not by themselves make up the predicate, but only in union with the participle or infinitive of another verb; but in this case we might augment their number to an indefinite extent. On the other hand it is assumed that by those verbs with their complements those relations of the verb are expressed which, in tongues of richer development of forms, are represented by tenses and moods. But here we manifestly go too far, since, for example, the certainly modal determinations contained in *can, must* &c., are expressed with decision by no verbal form in any tongue whatever.

The doctrine of forms has to do primarily only with the statement of those combinations of participles and infinitives with verbs of that class by which inflective forms of the verb existing in other tongues are supplied.

So far as the auxiliary verbs coming here under review offer

only two inflective forms of time, they often appear themselves compounded in periphrastic forms.

1. The tenses of the active voice gained by composition are essentially preserved by *have*, *shall* and *will*. How far *be* comes under review here is a matter for syntax.

Tenses of the present time are completed in the following manner; the perfect: *I have* been, had, loved: The future: *I shall (will)* be, have, love; when the first person receives *shall*, the two others *will* in the singular and plural: The future perfect: *I shall (will)* have been, had, loved.

Tenses of the past:

The plusquamperfectum: *I had* been, had, loved. The imperfect of the future: *I should (would)* be, have, love. The plusquamperfectum of the future: *I should (would)* have been, had, loved.

Middle forms:

The compound gerund (participle): *having* been, had, loved.

The infinitive of the past: *to have* been, had, loved.

2. The verb *may* may serve for the periphrastic formation of the conjunctive in its simple and compound forms; upon which syntax has to give more particular explanation. The completion of a few forms of the imperative is given by the verb *let*: *Let* me, him, us, them be &c.
3. The verb *be* with the participle of the perfect is substituted for all passive forms:

Tenses of the present:

Present: *I am* loved. Perfect: *I have been* loved. Future: *I shall (will)* be loved. Future perfect: *I shall (will)* have been loved.

Tenses of the past:

Preterite: *I was* loved, Plusquamperfectum: *I had been* loved. Imperfect of the future: *I should (would)* be loved. Plusquamperfectum of the future: *I should (would)* have been loved.

Middle forms:

The gerunds: of the present, *being* loved; of the past, *having been* loved.

The infinitive: of the present, *to be* loved; of the past, *to have been* loved.

Imperative: *be* (thou, you) loved; *let* me, him, us, them *be* loved.

4. Periphrastic forms of another sort, neither serving as substitutes for non-existent tenses, nor expressing modal relations of the predicate, are familiar both to Modern- and Old-English. They are shades of the notion of activity itself, for which, strictly speaking, no other verbal form could be substituted.

Here belongs the periphrasis with *be* with the participle or gerund of the present; as: The wind *is roaring* (LONGFELLOW). The day *is drawing* to its close (ib.). We *had been wandering* for many days (WHITTIER). Old-English: *Synggyne he was or floutyngye*,

al the day (CHAUCER 91.). *We han ben waytynge* al this fourteenight (931.). Here the verb of the predicate is resolved in such a manner that the activity is to be taken as a determination or quality cleaving to the subject, where the image of involution with or perseverance in the activity is approximate. Another periphrasis with *be* is that in which the infinitive is joined with it: Your brother *is to die* (SHAKESPEARE Meas. for Meas.). How *is* this *to be reconciled* with the doctrine of hereditariness? (LEWES). The infinitive with *to* expresses here, in connection with the preceding verb, the activity which the subject inclines to, strives towards or is designed for, where Old-English used to join *for* to the infinitive: *zif that hit be for to done* (Ms. in HALLIWELL v. for.).

A familiar periphrasis is that when the verb *do* precedes the simple infinitive: *We do want* a coach (GOLDSMITH). *Bring the lamp, Elsie. Dost thou hear?* (LONGFELLOW). *I did not write* (MURRAY). *Do thou love; do ye be loved* (ID.). Comp. Old-English: *Do me endite* Thy maydenes deth (CHAUCER 11960.). This mode of expression, wherein the general precedes the particular notion of the activity, seems originally to admit the reduplication for the sake of emphasis, which, however, has been weakened by the progressive enchoachment of this periphrasis. Syntax has to shew in what manner Modern-English departs from the older usage in the employment of it, particularly in negative and interrogative sentences.

The statement of the forms hitherto cited conducts us to the domain of syntax, where the more particular discussion of cognate phenomena will find its place.

C) Particles.

1) The Adverb.

The adverb or word of circumstance serves to determine the notion of the activity. If the adverb determines another part of speech than the verb, this only happens so far as the fundamental notion of an activity is still perceived in it. If the adverb receives at the same time a reference to a substantive, it becomes a preposition; if it relates at the same time to an entire sentence, it takes the nature of a conjunction.

a) It serves primarily to express determinations of space. Here it is the determinations of the *Where? Whither? and Whence?* which are denoted in an interrogative, demonstrative or more particular manner.

- 1) To the *where?* refer: *where? here; there; anywhere; elsewhere; somewhere*; negatively *nowhere*. More particular determinations contain *yonder; below; before; behind; within; without* &c. Yet the separation of the *Where?* from the *Whither?* is not always carried out; even *where* is extended to the latter by the usage of the tongue: And from the mart he's *somewhere* gone to dinner (SHAKESPEARE Com. of Err.). We wish to inquire *whence* you came, and *where* you are going (LONGFELLOW).

- 2) To express the Whence? *whither? hither; thither; hitherward(s)* and similar compounds serve, as, *eastward, backward &c.*, wherein however direction and movement coincide, and some others, as *home &c.*
 - 3) The Whither? is denoted by: *whence? hence; thence*, as well as combinations of determinations of space with a preceding *from*: *from below; from above &c.*, when we also even add *from* to the three characteristic adverbs *whence? hence; thence: from whence? &c.*, which appears a pleonasm, but is very usual.
- b) The adverbs of time serve
- 1) To denote a point or space of time generally, in which the activity falls. Here belong the interrogative *when?* the generalising *whenever* and the demonstrative *then*. In a more definite manner is denoted:
 - a) either the present, for instance, by *now; at present; to day &c.*
 - β) or the past, as by *yesterday; newly; lately; formerly; before; erewhile; of yore &c.*, although here occasionally we may start even from a past point of time,
 - γ) or the future: *to-morrow; soon; anon; hereafter; by and by &c.* when the standing-point from which the speaker starts, may again belong to various times.
 - 2) They also express the continuance of the activity, as well as its extension *from* a point or *up to* a point of the line of time, as: *long; longtime; still; ever; always; henceforth; henceforward; since; since then; hitherto; and negatively no longer; never.*
 - 3) So too the more or less frequent repetition of the activity is denoted by the adverb of time, as by *again; once more; seldom; oft, often; oftentimes; sometimes; now and then; daily; weekly; monthly; yearly &c.*
 - 4) Adverbs frequently have regard to the contemporaneousness or the temporal succession of activities, as is the case in *then; after; afterward; forthwith; first; last*, and others.
 - 5) Finally, the adverb of time may receive a subjective tinge by a reference to the image of appropriateness or expectation and the contrary, as appears in *early; late; betimes; already; sudden; suddenly* and others.
- c) Adverbs of manner denote in the most general sense a quality of the activity. As the adjective, the numeral and the adjective pronoun act in the determination of the substantive, so this adverb acts in the determination of the notion of activity, and comprises accordingly, besides qualitative determinations in the narrower sense, also demonstrative and quantitative ones, and, by analogy to the negative indefinite pronoun, the negation in the sentence. Thus these adverbs comprise:
- 1) Adverbs of manner in the narrower sense:
 - a) as interrogative and demonstrative ones: *how? so; thus; or indeterminate ones: somehow &c.*

- β) and with a more particular notional determination: *well; wisely; admirably; foolishly; slowly; quickly; at random; by stealth &c.*
- 2) Adverbs of determination of quantity and degree: *little; enough; half; much; abundantly; plentifully; exceedingly; superfluously; scarce; hardly; nearly; almost; quite; all; even &c.* also interrogative and comparative: *how much?, as, so &c.* We may also assign here the terms for the repetition of the activity definite times, as *once; twice; thrice &c.* How near, moreover, determinations of degree and qualitative determinations border on one another, is seen in some of the adverbs cited, as well as in forms like *intensely; mightily* and similar ones, in which the mode of the activity at the same time includes the degree.
- 3) Adverbs denoting the not merely temporal succession of actions, as *first; firstly; secondly; finally; lastly &c.*, or the order of rank in the narrower sense, as *principally; chiefly; rather &c.*, or the additional relation, in which that of outbidding may at the same time be contained, as *further; besides* and *moreover*. To these may also be added the expressions for the communion of the action, as in *together*, or the separateness, as in *asunder; apart; separately*, as well as for the interchange: *alternately; alternately; by turns &c.*
- 4) As a particular class we must cite that of the sentential adverbs, which repose formally upon the notion of the activity, but properly express a judgment of the speaker with regard to the predicate attributed to the subject.
- α) They appear in part as affirmative asseverations: *truly; certainly; verily; surely; really; indeed; forsooth &c.*, to which originally *very* belongs:
- β) in part as terms of possibility, probability or doubt: *likely; probably; possibly, peradventure, perhaps &c.*:
- γ) or, they are negations taking away the reference of the subject to the predicate, as *not; not at all, by no means, noways, noways &c.*
- δ) or, they are absolute affirmations or negations, which removed out of a sentence, strengthen or take away its matter, as *ay, yes, yea, and no, nay*, for which other adverbs annexed to the predicate may also be substituted, or which may be strengthened by these, as *indeed &c., not at all &c.*
- d) The adverbs of causality act in great part also as conjunctions, not containing themselves the causal determination of the action, but denoting it retrospectively, as if contained in another sentence. Here belong, with the exception of the interrogative *why?*, the adverbs *wherefore; therefore; hence; consequently; accordingly &c.*, to which adversative ones, as *nevertheless &c.*, are also annexed.

Origin and Form of Adverbs.

The adverbs of the English tongue are partly simple, partly.

and that frequently, compound words. In the composition, however, there is mostly only to be perceived an arrangement of parts of speech referred to one another, which are combined under a unity of accent. Compare: *somedeal* (*some deal*), *otherwise*, *away* (Anglosaxon *onwêg*, *âwêg*), *asunder* (Anglosaxon *on sundran*, *âsundron*); *whereever* (where ever) &c.

Adverbs are developed from substantives, adjectives, numerals and pronouns; the bulk of them rests upon adjectives. With respect to their form and, in particular, to their derivative terminations, they are attached to the Anglosaxon; the Romance element of the tongue accommodates itself to the Anglosaxon form. The blunting of the Anglosaxon final vowels and final syllables, certainly takes from them, particularly in Modern-English, their characteristic forms, but they have adopted no Romance compensation for this loss.

For the simple adverb or that formed by the blending together of different parts of speech a preposition with a noun after it is often substituted, which may be regarded as the expression of or as the periphrasis for a simple adverbial notion. The boundary between these periphrases and developed adverbial sentential determinations is scarcely to be specified, and in point of fact indifferent for syntax. We therefore also cite among adverbs a succession of familiar prepositional adverbs, which appear especially in vocal fusion.

a) Substantive adverbs:

The case of a substantive may become the determination of the notion of the activity in such a manner that it no longer appears qualified immediately or mediately by the verb; thus it receives the nature of an adverb no longer annexed to the predicative verb.

The genitive has but seldom been preserved as the adverbial case of a genuine substantive. Here still belongs in Modern-English *needs* (Anglosaxon *neádes*? *neád* f., gen. *neáde*; perhaps formed after the genitives *villes*; *sponte*; *unvilles*, *invite*; *gevealdes*, *sponte*; *ungevealdes*, *invite*, *fortuito*). Old-English had also: *his thanks*; *hir thanks*; *here unthanked*, that is, *libenter* and *ingratis*, as well as the Anglosaxon *pances*; *heora ágnes pances*, *eorum voluntate*; moreover *his godes* (MAUNDEV. p. 135.). In Modern-English also the obsolescent *straightways* along with *straightway*, and *longways*, perhaps also *sideways*, unless confounded with *sidewise*, as *lengthways* stood along with *lengthwise*, belong here. In Shakespeare: Come a little nearer *this ways* (Merry Wiv. 2, 2. ed. Collier) is remarkable. The adays now occurring particularly in the compound *now-a-days*, perhaps rests no less upon the genitive termination. Thus we have the Anglosaxon *idáges*, *hodie*, where *i* is not quite clear (compare *ýdäg*, *hodie*), and *a dayes* in Piers Ploughman quite answers to the Highdutch *eines Tages*, for which the Anglosaxon *nihtes*, offers an analogy. The obsolete *anothergates* (HUDIBRAS), also cannot be otherwise taken than as a genitive.

whilom, Anglosaxon *hvilum*, *hvilon* may pass for a primitive dative of the plural. We must also regard the adverbial *piecemeal*, as a remnant of a dative, a hybrid representative of the Anglosaxon *styccemælum*, *frustatim* (*mælum* dat. pl. from *mæl* n.). Compare Anglosaxon *dielmælum*, *partim*; *dropmælum*, *guttatim*; *bitmælum*,

frustillatim; *limmælum*, frustatim; *hæðpmælum*, acervatim &c. Old-English also had *flocmele*, Anglosaxon *flocmælum*, gregatim; *stoundemele*, Anglosaxon *stundinælum*, mox, every moment; *parcelmele*, by parcels, which are found in Chaucer. The compounds in *mæl* are moreover treated also as singular or plural substantives, and joined with *by*, as even in Rob. of Gloucester along with *pecemel* (I. 22.) also *by pece mele* stands (I. 216.), and so in Shakspeare *by inchmeal* (Temp. 2, 2.). Finally, *ever* and therefore *never* may be datives, Anglosaxon *æfre* (æfer), according to Ettmüller, the datives from *æfer*; and *næfre* (næfor).

A few accusatives have likewise been preserved: *home*, Anglosaxon *hâm*, domum; *back*, retro, for which in Anglosaxon *on* (after, under), *bac* commonly stands. On the other hand *down*, Anglosaxon *dûn* f., mons, is only a contraction from *adown*, Anglosaxon *âdûne* and *ofdûne*, deorsum, as *faith* has originated from *in faith*. *Cheap*, where it stands for *cheaply*, reminds us of the Anglosaxon *orcÿpe*, gratis (instrumental) but can be regarded as the accusative from the Anglosaxon *ceap*, which also passes as an English adjective. Here belong moreover the accusatives of the regions of the heavens, when used adverbially: *north*, Anglosaxon *norð*, *south*, Anglosaxon *sûð*, *east*, Anglosaxon *eást*, *west*, Anglosaxon *vest*, septentrionem, meridiem, orientem, occidentem versus. Compare: The plains, that, toward the southern sky, Fenced *east* and *west* by mountains, lie (BRYANT). Thus especially the adverbs compounded with *way*, *wise*, *deal*, *while* and *time*, also in the plural, are originally accusatives, as: *straightway*, *noway*, *alway*, more frequently *always*, Old-English *alway*, Anglosaxon *ealne vëg*, also *noways*, alongside of which in Old-English *algate* and *algates*, i. e. *always*, subsisted; *midway*, also *half-way*; *otherwise*, also *otherguise*, Anglosaxon (on) *ôðre vîsan*; *nowise*, hence also the compounds *coastwise*; *corner-wise*, i. e. diagonally; *endwise*, i. e. erectly, whose last substantive appears here and there corrupted with regard to form *guise* in *guess*, as in *otherguess*; *somedeal*, in some degree (obsolete). Old-English *som del*, as every *del*, Anglosaxon *sumne dæl*; *awhile*, (wherein the preposition *â*, *on* is perhaps not to be sought, compare the *while*, all the *while*, a little *while*); *somewhile*, Anglosaxon *sume hvîle*, *somhvîle*, aliquando, interdum; *otherwhile* and *otherwhiles*, Anglosaxon *ôðerhvîle*, interdum; *meanwhile*; *sometime* (SHAKSPEARE Temp. 2, 2.) (this the older form), and *sometimes*; *meantime*. The compound of *time* with the adverb *oft* is not yet quite abandoned: It reckons with me *ofttimes* for pain, and sometimes pleasure (L. BYRON); *oftentimes* (SHAKSP.), Old-English *ofttime*, as *seldentime* along with *ofte sithes*, *often sithes*, from the Anglosaxon *sîð*, tempus, vicis. Here belong also *yesterday*, Anglosaxon adverb *gîstran* and *gëstran dæg* and *yesternight* as adverbs. Numerous other adverbial accusatives are not in the same manner expressed as adverbs. Old-English was richer in those of the latter sort; there we still find *way*, Anglosaxon *veg*, accus.: along with *âveg*, *onveg* (Do *way* your hondes [CHAUCER]), *fote hot*, formed after the Old-French *chaud le pied*, and many more. *aye*, always, for ever, Old-English *ay*, is also to be regarded as an accusative.

Anglosaxon *ā* (= *av*), dat. *āra*, aevum, belonging to the Gothic *aivs*; see Negative and Affirmative Particles.

In conclusion we may here mention the substantives which appear like adjectives with the adverbial ending *-inga*, *-ēnga*, *-unga* and an *l* prefixed: *-l-inga*, *-l-unga*. In English it is often confounded with the *lang* appearing in the often misunderstood *endlong*, (Old-England andelong, also endlonges (MAUNDEV. p. 49.), Anglosaxon *andlang*, prepos. in *longum*); compare also Anglosaxon *eastlang*, *vestlang*, orientem, occidentem versus. Here belong the Old-English *noseling* (HALLIW. s. v.), the Modern-English *sidling*, in a side or sloping way (Old-English *sidelings* = sideways), Scottish *sydling* is, and those formed from adjectives *darkling*, *flatling*, still very usual in the seventeenth century and in SHAKSP. Temp. 2, 1. where *flatlong* is mostly written. The moderns have *sidelong*, *headlong* as well as *flatlong*. *partlings* &c. is still used dialectically.

b) Adjective adverbs.

The adverb proceeding from the adjective shews itself as the case of an adjective. In composition with *ly*, appearing as a derivative syllable, which we shall next consider, we shall likewise recognize a case.

- 1) In the adverbial forms arising from cases of the adjective, apart from the adverbs in *ly*, the genitive seldom participates in English. There have been preserved *else*; Anglosaxon *elles* from the pronominal adjective *el*, *ele*; Old-English *elles*, *ellis*, also *elle*, *el*; *eftsoons* (SHAKSP.), also *eftsones*, *eftsone*; Anglosaxon *sones* and *sona*, English *soon*; and *eft sona*, post cito; *unawares*, also *unaware* (MILTON), formerly *unwares*, in Shakspeare at *unawares*; Anglosaxon *unvāres*; *unethes* along with *uneath* (SHAKSP.) is obsolete, as in the Old-English *unethes*, *uneth*, Anglosaxon only *uneaðe*. Old-English also has *allynges*, omnino (compare above *sidelings*, *partlings*) formed from the Anglosaxon *eallinga*, *-enga*, *-unga*, so too *mocheles* = much, Anglosaxon *mycel*, *mucel*: Not *mocheles* more (MAUNDEV. p. 291.). *endlonges* see above.

But the genitive *wards* along with the accusative *ward* in compounds is still frequent in old adverbs and imitations, Anglosaxon *veardes*: *inwards*, *outwards*, *afterwards*, *upwards*, *downwards*, *backwards*, *northwards*, *homewards* &c. along with *inward*, *outward*, *afterward*, *upward*, *downward*, *backward*, *northward*, *southward*, *eastward*, *homeward* &c., to which also belongs *towards* along with *toward*, Anglosaxon *tōveardes*.

Mitford wrongly deems the forms in *s* the later and Johnson afterwards worse than *afterward*. Anglosaxon has *upveardes*, *niderveardes*, *piderveardes*, *tōveardes*, *hāmveardes* along with *afterveard*, *hiderveard*, *upveard*, *niderveard*, *inneveard* &c. as equally correct adverbial forms.

Accusative forms are predominant as adverbs. Of accusatives of the masculine gender there is, however, hardly an instance, unless *seldom*, raro, belongs here, Anglosaxon *sēldan* (*sēldon*, *sēldum*) along with *sēld*, Old-English *selden* and *selde* (still

in the sixteenth century), as well as *seld* in Shakspeare. Compare moreover the Old-English *o ferrom*, Anglosaxon *feorran*.

As neuter accusative adverbs (without mark of the case) we must regard: *enough*, Anglosaxon *genôh*, *full*, Anglosaxon *full*, adj. *plenus*, mostly in compounds, and those compounded of *ward*. The *al* appearing in compounds: *almighty*, *already*, *almost* &c. answers to the Anglosaxon particle *âl*: *âlmeahtig*, *âlmæst* &c., but has completely coalesced with *all*, Anglosaxon *eall* (*eal*, *al*) in *all-accomplished*, *all-beauteous*, and the like.

But we often meet with accusative adverbs which belonged to the Anglosaxon weak declension and then ended in *e*, which frequently appears in Old-English, but has been cast off in Modern-English, except where it was retained for phonetic reasons. Compare: Old-English *longe*, *lowe*, *rathe* (whence rather), *bittre*, *softe*, *soore*, *starke*, *clene*, *harde*, *hote* &c. Here belongs the Modern-English: *evil*, *ill*, Anglosaxon *yfele*, Old-norse *illa*, *male*; *even*, Anglosaxon *efne*, *plane*, *aeque*; *eath*, Anglosaxon *eaðe*, *faciliter*; *much*, Anglosaxon *mycele*, *mycle*, Old-English *mochele*, *mochel*, *mickle*, *multum*; *little*, Anglosaxon *lytle*, *paullulum*; *light*, Anglosaxon *lihte*, *leviter*; *like*, Anglosaxon *lice*, *similiter*; *late*, Anglosaxon *late*, *tarde*, *sero*; *long*, Anglosaxon *lange*, *diu*; *right*, Anglosaxon *rihte*, *juste*; *rath* (MILTON), Old-English *rathe*, Anglosaxon *raðe*, *räðe*, *cito*; *fair*, Anglosaxon *fägere*, *pulchre*; *fast*, Anglosaxon *fäste*, *firmiter*; *wide*, Anglosaxon *vide*, *late*, *undique*; *deep*, Anglosaxon *deôpe*, *profunde*; *dear*, still sometimes used for *dearly*, Anglosaxon *deôpe*, *dýre*, *care*; *thick*, Anglosaxon *picce*, *dense*, *frequenter*; *sore* (obsolete), Anglosaxon *säre*, *graviter*; *soft*, Anglosaxon *sôfte*, *molliter*, *suaviter*; *small*, Anglosaxon *smale*, *subtiliter* (compare: She has brown hair, and speaks *small*, like a woman ([SHAKSP. Merry Wiv. 1, 1.]); *still*, Anglosaxon *stille*, *quiete*; *clean*, Anglosaxon *clæne*, *penitus*; *high*, Anglosaxon *heähe*, *alte*; *hard*, Anglosaxon *hearde*, *dure* (also close).

Many existing adjectives of this sort are not to be shewn as Anglosaxon adverbs in their neuter form; but from a few we find adverbial comparatives and superlatives formed. Here belong: *mighty*, Anglosaxon adjective *meahtig*, *mihtig*; *lief*, Anglosaxon *leof*; *loud*, Anglosaxon *hlûd*; *low*, compare Hollandish *laag*; *ready*, from Anglosaxon adjective *räd*, *promptus*, *celer*; *pretty*, from the Anglosaxon *präte*, *ornatus*; *fain*, Anglosaxon adjective *fägen*, *lätus*; *thin*, Anglosaxon adjective *pynne*; *thwart*, Anglosaxon *pveorh*, *pvr* &c., *curvus*, even Old-English with *t*. Compare Highdutch *zwerch*; *sicker*, Scottish *sikker*, Old-Highdutch adverb *sichuro*; *sound*, Anglosaxon adjective *sund*; *sudden*, Anglosaxon *soden*, Old-French *sodain*, *sudain*; *slow*, Anglosaxon adjective *slav*; *slope*, compare Anglosaxon part. *slopen*, *lapsus*; *sweet* (Singing so *sweet*, and *clear*, and *loud* [LONGFELLOW]), Anglosaxon adjective *svête*; *stark*, Anglosaxon adjective *stearc*; *straight*, Anglosaxon part. *streht*, compare Latin *stricte*; *sheer* (little in use), Anglosaxon adjective *scærë*, *scær*, *purus*, compare Old-norse *skiarr*, *fugax*; *short*, Anglosaxon *scort*; *scant* (unusual). The word is found early, for instance, in Maundeville, and is

diffused in Scottish and Northenglish dialects. Does it belong to the Old-Highdutch *scant*, *inhonestus*? *skew*, compare Old-norse *skeifr*, Danish *skæv*, *obliquus*; *quick*, Anglosaxon adjective *cwic*, *vivax*.

In Old-French neuter adjectives were likewise, as many still are in Modern-French, used adverbially. The Anglosaxon and the Romance usage here touched each other. English could therefore readily assimilate Romance adjectives and participles to Anglosaxon in this regard. Here belong: *monstrous* (popularly like the corresponding Germanic *wonderful*), Old-French *monstrous*; *round*, Old-French *roûnd*, *roûnd*; *plain*, Old-French *plain*, *plein*; *false*, Old-French *fals*, *faux*, Modern-French adverb *faux*; *very*, Old-French *verai*, Latin *veracem*; *due*, Old-French participle *du* from *devoir*; *distinct* (And he said, *Speaping distinct and slow* [LONGFELLOW]), French the same; *sure*, Old-French *seur*, *seür*; *scarce*, Old-French *eschars*, *escars*, Medieval-Latin *scarpus*, *excarpus*; *just*, Old-French *just*, Modern-French adverb *juste*; *chief*, a substantive used adjectively, Old-French *chief*, *chef*; *common*, Old-French *commun*; *clear*, Old-French *clair*, *cleir*, *cler*, Modern-French adverb *clair*; *close*, Old-French part. *clos*; *quite*, Old-French *cuite*, *quite*, Latin *quietus*; *gross* (rare), (I'll speak more *gross*. SHAKSP. *Meas. for Meas.*). Other Romance-Germanic words belong here, as *exceeding* i. q. *eminently*; *doubtless*, and the like.

Unclear as to their origin, but mostly referring to primitive adjective forms are; *eft* (obsolete), Anglosaxon *eft*, *äft*, *iterum*, *denuo*, and *aft*, the same word, as well as the Anglosaxon *eft*, *äft* in compounds; *oft*, now poetic, beside *often*, Anglosaxon *oft*, Old-English *ofte*, *often*; *nigh*, Anglosaxon *neah*; *now*, Anglosaxon *nu* or *nū*; *far*, Anglosaxon *feorr*; *well*, Anglosaxon *vēla*, *vēl*, Old-English *wele*, *wel*; *soon*, Anglosaxon *sona*, see above; *yet*, Anglosaxon *git*, *güt*, *geot*, *gyt*, *gēta*; *yore* (not used without *of* standing before it), Anglosaxon *yāra*, *geāra*, *olim*. Related to *gear*, *annus*?

In the place of *well*, *good* has been here and there used adverbially, also in the meaning of *very* (compare HALLIWELL v. *good*), but which is now obsolete and inelegant. Anglosaxon is naturally richer than English in neuter adverbial forms, as Old-English excels Modern-English in this respect.

- 2) By far the greatest number of adjective adverbs, answering to a neuter accusative in *e*, are the adverbs now ending in *ly*. They arise from the adjectives compounded with the Anglosaxon *lic* (similis) and therefore sounded in Anglosaxon *lice*. The adjectives compounded with *lic* in Anglosaxon (in English *ly* and *like*) were of various kinds, so that *lic* was also added to substantives. So far as the Modern-English adjective termination and the adverbial termination sounded equally *ly*, both coincide in form. Old-English long distinguished the adverbial termination by the *e* after it: *stilleliche*, *fulliche*, *worthliche*, *soothliche*, *holdeliche*, *principalliche*, *fetisliche* (neatly), *batauntliche* (= hastily), *foliliche* &c., as well as frequently in *Piers Ploughman*, yet the termination *ly* came in early alongside of *lye*, as well as the termination *lich*

without *e*. In Modern-English the syllable *ly*, although appearing also in adjectives, is regarded as that by annexing which an adjective can be turned into an adverb.

This termination then generally is added to the unchanged noun stem of Anglosaxon and Romance words: *highly*; *steadfastly*; *willingly*; *perfectly*; *evidently*; *obscurely*; *safely*; *foolishly*; *noiselessly*.

If the stem ends in *ue*, the *e* is cast out: *duly*, *truly*, from *due*, *true*.

If it ends in an unaccented *y*, *y* is changed into *i*: *merrily* from *merry*; *lazily* from *lazy*; *noisily* from *noisy*; on the contrary views diverge as to the accented *ŷ*. Some spell *slyly*, from *slŷ*; *dryly* from *drŷ*; others *stily*, *drily* (SMART). If the stem ends in *le* with another initial consonant preceding it, *le* before *ly* is commonly cast off: *affably* from *affable*; *immovably* from *immovable*; *nobly* from *noble*; *terribly* from *terrible*; *singly* from *single*; *gently* from *gentle*; *idly* from *idle*, but also *idley* (BISH. HALL.). If, however, no other initial consonant precedes the final *le*, *le* is not cast out: *palely* from *pale*; *vilely* from *vile*; *solely* from *sole*; *fertilely* from *fertile* (SMART); *servilely* from *servile*; *hostilely* from *hostile*; on the other hand at least for a long time *e* has been thrown out in *wholly*, from *whole*, Old-English *holly*.

If a word ends in *ll*, an *l* is thrown out when *ly* is added: *stilly* from *still*; *fully* from *full*; *dully* from *dull*; this according to the Anglosaxon precedent: *stillice* from *stille*; *fullice* from *full*; in Old-English on the contrary, also *stilleliche* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER).

Formations of this sort from adjectives in *ly*, are also attempted, which then end in *lily*, as: *livelily*, *lovelily*, *lowlily*, *uglily*, *cleanlily* &c., whereby a distinction between the adverb and the adjective is striven after. They are, however, not favoured, although the reduplication in *likely* (properly *lic-lic* and *lic-lice*, where-with the dubious Anglosaxon *ungelŷdlic* can be compared; see Ettmüller p. 183.) is a precedent. It is preferable to make adverbs of the same sound as adjectives perceptible by the context.

Modern-English on the other hand has also abandoned many adjectives in *ly*, and preserved only the corresponding adverb, where Anglosaxon employs the adverb and adjective. Here belong the adverbs: *evenly*; *earnestly*; *manifoldly*; *newly*; *lightly*; *rightly*; *rankly*; *wisely*; *fastly*; *deeply*; *sorely*; *shortly*; *highly*; *hardly*, and a few more.

By far the greatest part of the Germanic adverbs coinciding with adjectives spring from the Anglosaxon, where we mostly find the adjective and the adverb, and only accidentally miss, in the literary works which have been handed down, sometimes the adverb and sometimes the adjective. Imitations mostly concern the compounding of Romance stems with *ly*.

As in Anglosaxon the simple adverbs in *e* often had an adverb compounded with *lice* alongside of them, so in English double adverbial forms of the same sort are still found in English, which

are in part distinguished by a shade in the meaning, and whereof the greater number rests upon Anglosaxon forms.

Of this sort are: *even*: *evenly*, Anglosaxon *ēfenlice*; *evil*: *evilly* (SHAKSP.), Anglosaxon adjective *yfellic*; *mighty*: *mightily*, Anglosaxon *mihtiglice*; *light*: *lightly*, Anglosaxon *lihtlice*; *late*: *lately*, Anglosaxon *latelice* (thus there also stands along with the superlative *last*: *lastly*); *long*: *longly* = longingly, also tediously, Anglosaxon *langlice*, *longe*, *diu*; *right*: *rightly*, Anglosaxon *rightlice*; *fair*: *fairly*, Anglosaxon *fāgerlice*; *fast*: *fastly* = surely, Anglosaxon *fāstlice*; *full*: *fully*, Anglosaxon *fullice*; *deep*, *deeply*, Anglosaxon *deōplice*; *thick*: *thickly*, Anglosaxon *piclice*; *sore*: *sorely*, Anglosaxon *sārlice*; *sudden*: *suddenly*, Anglosaxon *sodenlice*; *slow*: *slowly*, Anglosaxon *slawlice*; *still*: *stilly*, Anglosaxon *stillice*; *stark*: *starkly*, Anglosaxon *stearlice*, Som. perhaps *stearclice*, rigide, violent; *short*: *shortly*, Anglosaxon *scortlice*, breviter, paululum; *high*: *highly*, Anglosaxon *heāhlice*, praecique, perfecte; *hard*: *hardly*, Anglosaxon *heardlice*, dure, immoderate; *clean*: *cleanly* = elegantly, dexterously, Anglosaxon *clænlice*.

Even where no Anglosaxon precedent can be pointed out, as well as from Romance words without an adverbial mark, collateral forms in *ly* have been formed. Compare *like*: *likely*; *loud*: *loudly*; *low*: *lowly* = meanly; *ready*: *readily*, compare Anglosaxon *rādlice*; *pretty*: *prettily* = elegantly; *thin*: *thinly*; *sicker*: *sickerly*; *sound*: *soundly*; *scant*: *scantly* (DRYDEN); *straight*: *straightly* (SHAKSP.); *sheer*: *sheerly*; *quick*: *quickly* &c.; from Romance words: *monstrous*: *monstrously*; *round*: *roundly*; *plain*: *plainly*; *very*: *verily* = indeed; *due*: *duly*; *just*: *justly*; *common*: *commonly*; *clear*: *clearly*: *chiefly*. Thus too *doubtless* and *exceeding* have the collateral forms *doubtlessly*, *exceedingly*.

The adverbs in *ward*, standing alongside of the adverbs in *wards* and *wardly*, are mostly distinguished from them in this, that the latter are used more in the ethical sense: *inwardly*; *outwardly*; *backwardly*; *forwardly*.

Adverbs in *ly* are rarely formed immediately from nouns, as the old *namely* and *marbly* = in the manner of marble, according to Webster. Most forms of this sort referring to substantives have sprung from adjectives of the same sound, of which fatherly, motherly, friendly, godly, worldly, heavenly, yearly, monthly &c. belonging to the Anglosaxon, were instances, according to which others, as hourly, quarterly &c., were formed. — Adverbial formations peculiar to English are the compounds of participial forms in *ing*, *ed* &c. with *ly*, in which Anglosaxon with its participial forms in *ende* led the way, whence adjectives in *lic* were formed, as *nemnjendlic*, nominativus; *brosnjendlic*, corruptibilis; *feallendlic*, minosus &c. Old-English still had adverbs of this sort: *aylastandly*, = *everlastingly*; *stelendelich* = *by stealth* &c.; but also even in *ing*: *brenningly* = *hotly* &c.; Modern-English: *laughingly*; *boastingly*; *vauntingly*; *wittingly*; *jokingly*; *glancingly* = *obliquely*; *slaveringly* &c.; and *forcedly*; *wishedly*; *constrainedly*; *forbiddenly* &c.

3) Adjective, and, in particular, accusative adverbs are ori-

ginally capable of comparison by derivation, and have accordingly a comparative and superlative. Comparison has rarely penetrated into other adverbs, as in the Old-English in *back*: I went me *bakker* more (CHAUCER Ms. in HALLIW. s. v.).

The comparison of adverbs is effected, like that of the adjectives, either by the derivative terminations *er* and *est*, or by the addition of *more* and *most* to the positive. The former mode of comparison is very limited in Modern-English, the second has become the common one.

- α) Comparison by derivative terminations consisted, with the Anglosaxon adverb in the comparative form of the adjective appearing in the comparative with the weak inflection cast off: *rade*: *radör*; *oft*: *oftör*; in the superlative the accusative of the strong form (without a mark) was used: *rade*: *radöst*; *oft*: *oftöst*.

Old-English employed this mode of comparison to a large extent. In Modern-English the anomalous degrees of comparison, as well as a few débris of forms of comparison, have been chiefly preserved, whereas for the great number of regularly compared adverbs not only are the limitations for the comparison of adjectives the standard, but an aversion, particularly in prose, towards this mode of derivation is prevalent and is still more fostered by grammarians.

Of the Modern-English comparatives belonging here a few alone still share the Anglosaxon irregularity of casting off the characteristic letter of the comparative, *r*, as in the Anglosaxon *mā*, *bet*, *leng* and others, whereas these forms are still frequent in Old-English.

The English anomalous forms of comparison are:

much, comp. *more*, sup. *most*. Anglosaxon *micle*, *mycle*, comp. *māre*, *mā*, sup. *mæst*. Old-English *myculle*, *mickle*, *muchel*, *mochel*, *much*, *moche* &c., comp. *mare*, *more*, *ma*, *mo*, sup. *mest*, *most*. For the comparative *mo* extending into Modern-English see p. 277.

nigh, comp. *near*, sup. *next*. Anglosaxon (*neáh*), comp. *neár*, sup. *neáhist*, *nêht*, *nêxt*. Old-English comp. *nar*, *nere*, *narre*, sup. *next*. In English the fundamental distinctions are here in part obliterated, *near* signifying, like the positive, *nearly* and *almost*, and the superlative being primarily referred to temporal and ordinal succession. *nearer* comes in as the comparative of *near*.

little, comp. *less*, sup. *least*. Anglosaxon *lytle*, comp. *lūs*, sup. *lāst*. Old-English *litle*, comp. *lasse*, *lesse*, *less*, sup. *leeste*. The form *lesser*, which has penetrated into the corresponding adjective (for the Anglosaxon *lāssa*) is also used as an adverb, for instance, by Shakspeare. It is related externally to the Anglosaxon *lās* exactly like the English adverbial *better* to the Anglosaxon *bet*.

late, comp. *later*, sup. *last*. Anglosaxon regularly *late*, *lāte*, comp. *latör*, sup. *latöst*. Old-English like Modern-English.

far, comp. *farther* and *further*, sup. *farthest*, *furthest* (SMART).

The Anglosaxon *feorr*, *feor*, *procul*, has the comp. *fyrre*, sup. *fyrrest*, *feorrest*, *fyrst*, like the Old-English comp. *ferre*, sup. *ferrest*. The Modern-English *farther*, *farthest* are anomalous formations, which have been assimilated to *further*; *further* answers to the Anglosaxon *furðor*, *forðor*, *ulterius*, which attaches itself to the adverb *ford*. The Old-English *forther* may have occasioned the confusion: She gropeth alway *forther* (CHAUCER).

well, comp. *better*, sup. *best*. Anglosaxon *vēla*, *vēl*, comp. *bet*, *bett*, sup. *betst*, *best*. Old-English *wel*, *well*, comp. *bet*, *bett*, sup. *best*. The adverbial form *bet* has been quite lost in Modern-English. Old-English: I may the *bet* hem cleyme (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 389.). Go *bett* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 241., HALLIWELL s. v. and CHALMERS Gloss. ad Lindsay p. 266.). Yet *bettre* also occurs, for instance PIERS PLOUGHM p. 102.

evil, *ill*, comp. *worse*, sup. *worst*. Anglosaxon (*yfele*), comp. *virs*, *vyrs*, sup. *vyrst*. Old-English *evel*, comp. *wers*, *worse*, sup. *werst*, *worst*. As with the corresponding adjective, *worser* has sometimes also penetrated as an adverbial comparative: In time go and bargain lest *worser* you fal (TUSSEER see Dial. of Craven 2. p. 269.). The adjective positive Anglosaxon *veorr*, *perversus*, in fact a comparative, is also found in Old-English as an adverbial comparative: Hast thow bacbyted thy nehbore, For to make hym fare the *worre*? (Ms. in HALLIWELL v. worre.)

Remnants of adverbial forms of comparison are comp. *ere*, now used mostly in comparison, where *ere* may also operate as a preposition: *erewhile*, *erewhiles*, sup. *erst*, mostly poetic, else obsolete. Anglosaxon comp. *ær*, *prius*, *antea*, sup. *ærōst*, *-est*, *-ist*, the adjectives of which comp. *ærta*, sup. *ærsta* have been abandoned. Old-English comp. *ere*, sup. *arst* (RITSON), *erst*. Also comp. *rather*, the positive of which is obsolete, and whose superlative (by Shakspeare transformed jocosely into *ratherest* Love's L. L. 4. 2.) no longer occurs, belongs here. Anglosaxon *raðe*, *rāðe*, comp. *raðor*, sup. *raðōst*. Old-English *rathe*, comp. *rather*, sup. *rathest*. The sup. *eftest* in Shakspeare Much Ado &c. 4, 2. = soonest? is questioned (deftest according to Delius); it would belong to *eft*, Anglosaxon *eft*, *äft*, *iterum*, *denuo*. *lief*, comp. *lever* is obsolete. Anglosaxon adj. *leóf*, comp. *leófre*, sup. *leófest*. Old-English *lefe*, *leef*, *lief*, comp. *lever*, *leifer*, sup. *levest*, *liefest* &c. *Chiefest*, stands without a comparative: But first and *chiefest* with thee, bring Him that yon soars (MILTON).

Of other accusative adverbs we offer find a few others compared, as: *loud* — *louder* — *loudest*; *soon* — *sooner* — *soonest*; *fast* — *faster* — *fastest*; *high* — *higher* — *highest*; *early* — *earlier* — *earliest*; *often* — *oftener* (SHAKSP. Mids. N. Dr. 2, 2.) — *oftenest* (Anglosaxon *oft* — *oftor* — *oftōst*). Old-English *oft* — *ofnor* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *after* — *oftest*; in Skelton: *oftnar*, *oftenner* and others. The Anglosaxon interchange of vowel in a few adverbs is, as with the adjective, abandoned: *long* — *longer* — *longest*. Anglosaxon *lange* — *leng* — *lengst*. Old-English *longe* — *leng* — *lengost*: Hii ne myzte no *leng* abyde

(ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 174. 229.). Even Skelton has *lenger* I. 69.

Poetry especially still employs derivative comparatives and superlatives, and, in contradistinction to the other limitations of this usage, sometimes even those alongside of which no adverbial positive is in use, as frequently in Old-English: You have spoken *truer* than you purposed (SHAKSP. Temp.). And look how well my garments sit upon me, Much *feater* than before (IB.). Thou art *easier* swallowed than a flap-dragon (ID. Love's L. L.). The tenderest ones and weakest, Who their wrongs have borne the *meekest* (WHITTIER). Compare Murray's censure of comparatives and superlatives p. 162. 163.

The annexing of the syllable *ly* to the comparative and superlative instead of the comparison of the positive compounded with *ly* (-lier, -liest) is remarkable. In Modern-English a few forms of this sort, in part with the obliteration of the meaning of the degrees of comparison, have remained, as *nearly*; *latterly* = lately; *formerly*; *mostly*; *lastly*; *firstly*; *foremostly* (obsolete). This formation is old and formerly diffused itself wider: More *plenerly* (MAUNDEV. p. 42.). Better perceyved And *thankfullerlye* receyved (SKELTON I. 341. according to Dyce's Ms.).

- β) The comparison with *more* and *most* is as old with adverbs as with adjectives. It touches first of all the adverbs in *ly*, but likewise seizes the rest: I breathe again *more freely* (LONGFELLOW). As he *most learnedly* delivered (SHAKSP. Temp.). Ebbing men, indeed, *Most often* do so near the bottom run &c. (IB.).

A reduplication of the comparison by the combination of *more* and *most* with the derivative degrees of comparison was frequent in Old-English, but is now, as with the adjective, regarded as improper: Old-English: Ofte syte aboue was, and binepe oftor mo (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 264.). *More plenerly* (MAUNDEV. p. 42.). Parceyveth *moore depper* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 307.). So in Shakspeare: *more proudlier* (Coriol. 4, 7.). With *near* we still often find *more*, where the comparative import of *near* is no longer felt: Yon stood *more near* him (L. BYRON). Let me . . . *more nearly*, Dying thus, resemble thee (LONGFELLOW).

In Shakspeare, where *near* still occurs in the comparative, *near* is usually written, as if an abbreviation from *nearer* were in question.

The comparison with *more*, *most* may also be transferred to other adverbial determinations than the original adjective forms: What are the books now *most in vogue*? (LONGFELLOW). That which is *most within me* (L. BYRON).

The combination of *less*, *least* with adverbs may be regarded as a comparison downwards. See the Adjective.

c) Adverbs of number.

Adverbs of number denote partly the order of the activities according to number, partly their simplicity or multiplicity, partly the oneness or repetition of the same act.

- 1) Numerical adverbs of order are formed by annexing the syllable *ly* to the ordinal numbers: *firstly*, alongside of *first*; *secondly*; *thirdly*; *fourthly*; *fifthly* &c. Anglosaxon offered no support for this. Periphrastic forms are: in the first, second &c. place.
- 2) Numerical adverbs of complexity exist in a small number, as *singly*, which however is only used distributively, as individually; *doubly*, for which the accusative adverb *twofold* also appears (comp.: on the other hand the Anglosaxon *preofealdlice*, tripliciter), as other numerals in *fold* are also employed adverbially: *trebly*, *triplly*, *quadruply*, and a few similar ones. From *manifold*, *manifoldly* is formed, after the Anglosaxon *manegfealdlice*.
- 3) Frequentative adverbs are mostly gained by periphrasis; the few formed by a derivative termination (*ce*) rest upon the genitive form, as *once*, Anglosaxon *ânes* (comp. *ânes hvât*, quoque modo, although else *âne siðe*, una vice and sometimes *âne* as an adverb), Old-English *anes*, *ones*; *twice*, Anglosaxon *twigges*, Old-English *twyes*, *twies*; *thrice*, Anglosaxon only *priga*, *priva*, Old-English *thrie*, and formed according to the others: *thries*.

Once is often treated as an accusative, and combined with *this*, *that*: *This once* I yield (J. HUGHES). Let us appear *this once* like generous victors (ID.). Compare Webster s. v.

The rest of the frequentative adverbs are formed by periphrasis, for which the cardinal numbers are employed with the substantive *time* in the accusative of the plural: *four times*, *five times*, *ten times* &c.; as the former are also sometimes expressed periphrastically: *a single time*, *another time*, *three times* and the indefinite frequentatives: *sometimes*, *many times*, *several times*. Anglosaxon here used the substantive *sið*, *gressus*; *ôðrê siðe*, iterum; *feóver siðon*, quater; *seofon siðum*, septies &c. This mode is to be met with in Old-English: And if men me it axe *Size siðes* or *sevene* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 102.), where the accusative then also appeared instead of the Anglosaxon instrumental and dative: And thankyd God a C. *syth* in rhyme (Ms. in HALLIWELL v. sith), with which we may however compare the Anglosaxon *eahta siðe* tventig (CHRON. SAX. 1071.); but alongwith them *time* is also employed: And thus tene I trewe men *Ten hundred tymes* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 103.).

4) Pronominal adverbs.

Here belong the adverbs which have especially proceeded from demonstrative and interrogative pronominal stems, of which the former have mostly the import of space, the latter chiefly of time.

1) Adverbs from demonstrative stems.

To the Anglosaxon *pē* (*se*), *peó* (*seó*), *pāt* belong:

there. Anglosaxon *pār* and *pær*, *pér*, *ibi*, *illic*. Old-English *ther*, *there*, which was also used relatively, as in Anglosaxon, where it also signified *ubi*, *quo*. Compare: *Ther* nature wol not werche, Farewel physike (CHAUCER p. 21. I. Tyrwh.).

thither. Anglosaxon *pider*, *pyder*, *illuc*, *istuc*, also relatively, with and without *pe*: *quo*, Old-English *thider*.

thence. Anglosaxon *panan*, *panon*, *panonne* &c. Old-English *thenne*, but also early with the genitive termination *thennes*: *Ere she thennes yede* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 19.), whence the Modern-English *thence*.

then, in a metaphorical meaning. Anglosaxon *ponne*, *penne*, *tunc*, *tum*. Comp. the accusative m. *thone*, *thāne*, Old-English *thanne*, *than*. It is the same word as the English *than*, which, dissimilated from the former, is used for *quam*, after the comparative. In Anglosaxon *ponne*, *penne* also passes for *quam*. Old-English had *tho*, *tha*, Anglosaxon *pā*, *tum*.

thus, Anglosaxon *þus*, Old-English the same.

so, *also*. Anglosaxon *sva*, *sic* (*svā*, *sicut*) and *ealsvā*, *etiam*, *sic*.

To the Anglosaxon *hē*, *heó*, *hit* belong:

here, Anglosaxon *hēr*, Old-English *her*, *here*.

hither, Anglosaxon *hider*, *huc*, Old-English *hider*.

hence, transferred to time: from now. Anglosaxon *hinan*, *heonan* &c., *hinc*, *abhinc*, also *illuc*. Old-English *henen*, *henne* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER and others), yet also early with the genitive termination *hennes*, *hens*, whence the Modern-English *hence*. Instead thereof *hūhen* in ROB. OF BRUNNE p. 26. *Hen* is still in use in Lincolnshire.

hind, whence *behind*, Anglosaxon *hind*; in compounds, like *hindveard*, and *hinder*, adverb and prepos. post, now considered an adjective.

To *geon*, preserved in Anglosaxon only in the adverb *geond*, Gothic *jains*, (English *yon*) belong.

yond, *yon*. Anglosaxon *geond*, *illuc*. Old-English *yond*, *yon*. Comp.: And say what thou seest *yond* (SHAKSP. Temp.), where without reason *yond* is commonly written: Him that *yon* soars on golden wing (MILTON). These forms are becoming obsolete in comparison with *yonder*, which is formed analogously to the Anglosaxon *hider*, like the Gothic *jāindrē* compared with *hidrē*.

- 2) From the interrogative pronominal stem *hwa*, *hrāt* there developes themselves:

where, interrogative and relative. Anglosaxon *hvar*, *hvār*, *ubi*. Old-English *wher*, *where*.

whither, interrogative and relative. Anglosaxon *hvāder*, *hvider*, *hvidre* &c., *quo*. Old-English *wyder*, *wider*.

whence, interrogative and relative. Anglosaxon *vhanan*, *vhanon*, *hvana* &c., *unde*. Old-English *whanne*, *wanne* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), also early *whennes*, whence the Modern-English *whence*. Old-English also *whethen*.

Thence come the compounds *whereso*, *wheresoever*, *wherever*, *whithersoever*, *whencesoever*; also *nowhere*, Anglosaxon *nāhvar*, *nusquam*; *elsewhere*, Old-English *elleswber*; compare Anglosaxon *elles hvider*, *elles hvergen*, *aliosum*, *everywhere*; *somewhere*, *anywhere*, for which in the Old-English *owhtwhare*, *owhar*, *owhere* also occurs, *otherwhere* (SHAKSPEARE), *some other where*, and several others.

when, also a conjunction. Anglosaxon *hvenne*, *hvanne*, *hvonne*, *quando*. Old-English *whan*, *wan*, *when*.

why, Anglosaxon hvȳ (hvê) and *how*, Anglosaxon hū, have arisen from the instrumental of the pronoun. Thence the compound *somehow*.

- 3) Hither also may be referred the adverb *any*, borrowed from the indefinite pronoun, for which *anywise* now rather occurs. It belongs to the Anglosaxon *ænig*, ullus, and probably sprung from the instrumental *ænigê*, Old-English *any*, *eny*, *ony*; Old-English Or I procede *ony* ferther (MAUNDEV. p. 53.). Modern-English: If you tarry *any* longer (SHAKSP. Two Gentl.). Before I *any* farther go (LONGFELLOW). The word *other*, also occurring in Shakspeare, likewise belongs here: Nay, but it is not so. — „It is no *other*“ (Meas. for Meas. 4, 3). Comp. Oth. 4, 2.; like *else*, see above.

e) Prepositional Adverbs.

The combination of prepositions with adjectives, substantives, numeral and pronominal adverbs is very usual, which partly serve to complete adverbial determinations, with which a preposition is adapted to define the relation more particularly. The prepositions themselves, obviously originally in part adverbs, serve in general to denote relations of space and time, but which they transcend, when used metaphorically; and although chiefly in the closest connection with substantive notions, they still betray an originally adverbial character.

For this reason prepositions also appear again as adverbs, where they appear exempted from substantive notions and only shew themselves as determinations of activity. Language everywhere presents instances, and one needs scarcely to be reminded of sentences like: Toiling *on* and *on* and *on* (LONGFELLOW). Reading, the whole year *out* and *in*, Naught but the catalogue of sin (ID.). Sometimes the modern language distinguishes the adverb from the preposition (although sometimes only in a determinate meaning) by the form, as *fro* in *to* and *fro*, from *from*; *too*, from *to*; *off* (also a preposition) from *of*. A preposition is moreover hardly incapable of appearing adverbially, on which the Syntax has to give more particular explanations.

The union of other parts of speech with prepositions, whence proceed many blendings of particles, or, at least combinations of them under one accent, is a phenomenon common to many tongues. The prepositions come partly before, partly after another word. Those which precede lean proclitically upon them and are therefore mostly confined to the monosyllabic ones. Where the proclisis, certainly not to be rigidly defined, ceases, developed adverbial sentences make their appearance. The prepositional adverbs rest partly upon Anglosaxon precedent.

- 1) The preposition combines with a substantive.

in: *indeed*, comp.: French *en effet*. Periphrases are looser: *in fact*, *in truth*, *in reality*, *in earnest*, *in jest*; *in fine*, French *enfin* &c.

ere: *erewhile*, *erewhiles*, which, reversed, also appears as *whilere*, *while-ere* (SHAKSP., MILTON), as in Anglosaxon the preposition

ær may also follow its case: *feóvertýne dagum ær* (MATTH. 24, 40.).

at commonly stands separated from the noun: *at home*, Anglosaxon *ât hām*, *domi*, Old-English *atom* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); *at hand*, Anglosaxon *ât handa* (Dat.), *at no hand*; *at any hand*; *at sea*, *at land*, *at doors*, compare *adoors*; *at length* &c. *at* sometime corresponds to the French *à*: *at leisure*, French *à loisir*; *at random*, French *à random*.

on only appears separated from the noun, as in *on land*, *on shore*, *on board*, *on foot*, compare Old-English *afote*, Modern-English *afoot* &c. Yet it is frequently blended with it in the interchange with *a*, where the Anglosaxon *ā* lies at the foundation, which might also appear for *of*. These compounds are in Modern-English mostly limited to determinations of space and to abstract expressions of an activity or condition, whereas in Old-English they are also referred to time. Some rest immediately upon Anglosaxon and Old-norse originals, as *aback*, Anglosaxon *on bāc*, *retro*; *away*, Anglosaxon *on weg*, *āveg*; *awheels* (obsolete, BEN JONNS.), Anglosaxon *on hveole* (Ps. 76, 17.), to which also belongs the preposition *among*, Anglosaxon *āmang*, *onmang* from the subst. *mang*; *again*, Anglosaxon *on-gēgn* &c., *āgēn* prep. and adv. *rursus*, *obviam*, belonging to the substantive *gāgn*, *commodum*? *aright*, Anglosaxon *āriht*, from the subst. *riht*; *amiss*, Old-norse *āmis*, *de via*, *contra jus et æquum*, in Anglosaxon subst. *misse*, *miss*, *mis*, *mist*, only in compounds, still in use in Old-English as an independent substantive, for instance, in the Towneley Myst., like the Old-norse *missa*, *damnum*; *athirst*, which moderns cite only as an adjective. Old-norse *ā porsti* = *pyrstr*, *sitiens*.

English imitative forms, or forms at least not to be pointed out in Anglosaxon, which are mostly old, but seem to increase of late although many are only dialectical, frequently serve to denote the where? and whither? or position and direction; *alee*, subst. *lee*, Anglosaxon *hleóv*, *hliv*, *hleó*, *refugium* [so we must think the *lee* left undetermined above p. 199.]; *aloof* = more nearly to the wind and at a distance, Old-English *aluffe*, perhaps from the Anglosaxon *lōf*, *palma*. Comp: Old-English *lufe*, *manus* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 32, where *hufe* is a misprint); *loof* is moreover a part of the ship; *a.oft*, from Anglosaxon *lyft*, *ær*, *nubes*; *arow*, subst. *row*, Anglosaxon *rāw*; *abed*, subst. *bed*, Anglosaxon *bedd*; *abaft*, Old-English also *baft*, in maritime language the contrary of *afore*, belongs to the Anglosaxon subst. *bāfta*, *tergum*, although connected with *bāftan*, prep. *post*; *aboard*, subst. *board*, Anglosaxon *bord*; *abreast*, subst. *breast*, Anglosaxon *breóst*; *afield*, subst. *field*, Anglosaxon *fild*, *fēld*; *afoot* = on foot, in action, subst. *foot*, Anglosaxon *fōt*; *aweather* = to the wind-side, subst. *weather*, Anglosaxon *vēder*, Old-English *wedur*; *atop*, Anglosaxon *top*, *vertex*; *adoors* (obsolete), Old-English also *adores*, Anglosaxon *duru*, *dyr*; *acop* (obsolete) = at the top, high up, subst. *cop*, Anglosaxon *cōpp*, *culmen*; *agate* (local), subst. *gate*. Old-norse *gata*, *semita*; *aground*, subst. *ground*, Anglosaxon

grund; *ahead* (naut.), subst. heáf, Anglosaxon heáfud; *astern*, subst. stern, Anglosaxon stearn, gubernaculum; *ashore*, subst. shore, Anglosaxon score.

In union with different dimensions *a* denotes the direction: *alength*, *alight*; likewise *aside*.

Transferred to concrete and abstract substantives, in which the activity is accomplished or to which it is directed, the adverb appears with *a* in: *ablaze*, subst. blaze, Anglosaxon blāse, flamma; *afire*, subst. fire, Anglosaxon fȳr; *areek*, subst. reek, Anglosaxon rêc, réac; *asleep*, Old-English aslepe, subst. sleep, Anglosaxon slæp; *awork* (SHAKESPEARE), Old-English aworke, subst. work, Anglosaxon weorc, wec, vorc; *atilt*, subst. tilt, dialectically in the North of England tilt, vehement, turbulent, compare Anglosaxon tealt, vacillans, Old-norse tölt, vagatio to-lutaria? also tipped (of a barrel) subst. tilt, leaning, perhaps from the Old-norse tilt, from tilla, elevatio; *afloat*, subst. float, from the Anglosaxon fleótan and flotjan, fluctuare; *adrift* = floating, at random, subst. drift, to Anglosaxon drifan; *abrood*, subst. brood, Anglosaxon brôd, concretio, compare adject. brôdig, incubans; *astride*, subst. stride, Anglosaxon stræde, passus; *astray*, subst. stray, from the Anglosaxon strægan, strégan, spargere, Old-English on straye and astrayly (HALLIWELL s. vv.); *astrut*, Old-English astrout, astrote (formerly also *swollen*, turgide), subst. strut = affectation of stateliness in walking &c., allied to *strutzen*? *amain*, subst. main, Anglosaxon mægen, vis, robur. Some of these words are now employed as adjectives, as *alive*, certainly naught else than the Anglosaxon on life, in vita; *akin*, Anglosaxon cynn, cognatio; *astir* = bustling, active, Northern-Engl. asteer, subst. stir, from Anglosaxon stêran, stýran, movere, agitare and others.

Old-English forms, which still live in dialects, are: *ablode* (dial. ablood); *afere*, timid; *aknen*, *aknewes*, *aknowe*, down, on the knee (dial. akne); *agame*, in jest (now also addicted to gaming), and others, which appear as adjectives, as *afret*, Anglosaxon frātu, ornamentum; *aflaunt*, subst. flaunt, mundus, Gothic flautan, and others.

There come here into contact with the Anglosaxon forms Romance ones having *à* for their foundation, as *apeak*, French à pic; *apart*, French à part; *apace* = hastily, French à pas, Old-English apas (CHAUCER), to which are attached *amort*, lifeless, depressed; *apiece* = to the share of each; *afront* = in front; *agog* = in a state of desire, French à gogo. Old-English has *agref* = in grief, and many more.

The reference to time often takes place in Old-English, in: *amorwe*, *amorve*, in the morning; *anight*, in the night, and the like. *A-morweninges* . . And in evenynges (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 222.).

out is found compounded in *outdoors* = abroad, hence provincially *out-door-work* = field-work.

over: *overboard*; *overhead* = aloft, above.

under: *underfoot* = beneath; *underhand* = secretly.

be = *by*: *betime*, *betimes*, comp. Middlehighdutch *bizîte*; *beside*, *besides*. *By* is not found blended, as in: *by land*, *by water*, *by stealth*, *by chance*, *by degrees* &c.

before and *behind*: *beforehand* = previously &c., also *aforehand*; *beforetime* = formerly; *behindhand* = backward, tardy, also as an adjective.

per in Romance formations: *peradventure*, Old-English *peraventure*, *peraunder*; *percase* (*percace* JACK J'GLER); *perchance*, in the same signification as the imitated form *perhaps*, Old-norse *happ*, *bona sors*, compare the Anglosaxon adj. *hæpp*, *commodus*; *perforce*; *perdy* = certainly, French *par Dieu!* as an interjection.

for: *forsooth*, Old-English *forsothe*, Anglosaxon for *sôð*, *pro veritate*. Compare: And he woot the sothe (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 199.). Besides, *for* appears separated: for instance &c.

within is compounded in *withinside*, which is also regarded as an adjective.

to is put in nearer connection with determinations of time: *to-morrow*, from the Anglosaxon subst. *morgen*; *to-night*; *to-day*, Anglosaxon *tô niht*, *tô dæg*, dialectically also *to-month* = this month, *to-year*, like the Old-English *to yere* = this year. In other cases we leave *to* without closer connection with the substantive, as in *to boot* (SHAKSP.); compare Old-English *to sope* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER) = *forsooth*.

- 2) The adverbial determination of the activity is often expressed by prepositions with adjectives or adjective adverbs, yet the prepositions mostly stand separated from the adjective. Compare *in vain*, French *envain*; *in common*; *in short*; *ere long*; *ere now*, compare Anglosaxon *ær pam*, *ær þonne*; *at unawares*, as *at once*, for which *atones*, *attones*, *atenens* &c. stands in Old-English; *at last*; *at least*; *at first*; Old-English also *averat* and *aterst*, Anglosaxon *ât ærestan*, *primum*; *on high*; *of old*; *of late*; *over all* (And light was *over all* (MILTON), yet also spelt *over-all*, Old-English *over al*; *from high*; *from far* (*afar*) &c.

The greater and almost sole number of blendings of the preposition with the adjective is comprised by the composition with *a* (Anglosaxon *on*, *an*, *ô*, *á*). The next section explains the prepositions which have arisen in this manner. Here belong: *anew*; *anon* (*ever* and *anon* = *every now and then*); from the numeral, Anglosaxon *on án*, *continuo*, Old-English also *anone*, *anonon*; *alate* (*obsolete*) = *lately*; *along*, also *alongst* (*Somerset*), which is at the same time to be regarded as a preposition, arose from the Anglosaxon *andlang*, prep., in *longum*, *per*; *aloud* = *loudly*. *alow*, Old-English *alowe*, *alough*, *alogh* = *below*; *abroad* = *widely*, at large, belonging to the Angl. *bráð latús*. Grimm distinguishes *abroad*, as the Old-norse *á bráut*, *abhinc*; in Old-English *abrood* (PIERS PLOUGHM.) also stands for the latter; *afar*, Old-English also *oferrom*, *afarne*, from the Anglosaxon adv. *feorran* (the contrary of the obsolete *anear*, dialectically also *anearst*); *afat*, from *flat* Old-norse *flatr*, *planus*; *afresh* = *anew*, Anglosaxon *fêrsc*; *awry*, from *wry* = *crooked*, *distorted*, from the

Gothic *vraiqvs*; *adry*, passes now for an adjective, yet it is perhaps properly: on the dry; compare Anglosaxon *on pam dry-gēan* (LUCAS 23, 31.); *athwart*, Anglosaxon *on pveorh*, see *thwart* p. 392.; *asunder*, now commonly in *sunder*, formerly also *asunderly*; *separatim*, Anglosaxon *on sundran*, *ásundron*; *aslant*, from *slant* = oblique, compare Swedish *slentra*. Besides we also find formerly *aslet* and *asloute*, as well as dialectically *aslew* and *aslash* with the same meaning; *aslope* from *slope*, see above; *askew*, see above *skew* and Old-norse *á ská*, oblique; *askaunt* and *askaunce*, else also *ascance*, *ascaunce*, is also used in Old-English in the meaning of *askew* and at the same time of *scarcely*. In the meaning of *askew* it is allied to the latter, as well as to *asquint*, compare the verb *sken* in the North of England, like *squint*; in the meaning *scarcely* it belongs to *scant*, see p. 392.; the termination *ce* is to be regarded as a genitive termination; *asquint*, like *askew* and *askaunt*, from *squint*, dialectically (Craven) also *asquin*, in Eastern dialects *sqywnniken*, *squinnny*, *squin-eies* sec. XVII. = squinting eyes; allied to *skew*; *agood*, may also spring from the substantive *good*, Anglosaxon *gôd*; *ahigh* = on high.

Other combinations of prepositions with adjectives are those from *ere* in *erelong* = before long; *erenow* = before this time; *after* in *afterall* = at last, with the indeterminate pronoun *all*; likewise *with* in *withal*; *be* in *below*, Old-Engl. also *alowe*; here also *belike* (SHAKSP.) seems to belong, for which *be'ikely* stands in Bishop Hall, whereas in the regular *besure* the abbreviation from *to be sure* is contained. In *together* a primitive adverb may also be found, Anglosaxon *to gādere*, for which in Old-English *togideres* also stands (PIERS PLOUGHMAN. p. 167.).

- 3) The union of prepositions with adverbs of another sort concerns particularly the pronominal adverbs, which the former usually follow, as in *therein*, Old-English *therinne*, *thereinto*, *thereabout*, also *thereabouts*, with the genitive *s*, *thereafter*, *thereat*, *thereon*, *thereof*, *thereout*, *thereunto*, *thereunder*, *thereupon*, *thereby*, *therefore*, *therefrom*, Old-English also *therefro* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 223.), *therewith*, *therewithal*, *thereto*; *thitherto*; *thencefrom* (obsolete); *herein*, *hereinto*, *hereabout* (hereabouts), *hereafter*, *hereat*, *hereon*, *hereof*, *hereout*, *hereunto*, *hereupon*, *hereby*, *herewith*, *hereto*, *heretofore*; *hitherto*; *wherein*, *whereinto*, *whereabout* (whereabouts), *whereat*, *whereof*, *whereunto*, *whereupon*, *whereby*, *wherefore*, *wherewith*, *wherewithal*, *wherethrough* &c. They are formed partly after the Anglosaxon precedent; compare: *pærinne*, *pærābūtan*, *pærāfter*, *pæron*, *pærof*, *pærufo*, *pærūte*, *pærmid*, *pærvið*, *pærtō*; *panonveard*, whereas in the other Anglosaxon particles of this class the compounds seem to be wanting. Other adverbs rarely have prepositions subjoined, as *forthwith*. More rarely still a connected preposition precedes adverbs of this sort, like *be* in *behind*, Old-English also *ahind*, *ahint*, and *beyond*; although prefixed prepositions otherwise occur, as in *from hence* (thence, whence), where the superfluous *from* is censured by grammarians, from where, from elsewhere, till then &c.

f) The Negative and Affirmative Particles.

From the aforesaid adverbs the negative and affirmative particles are distinguished, which require a particular discussion, so far as they are not touched upon hereafter among Conjunctions.

The primitive English negative, or the negation of the reference of the subject to the predicate, was denoted by *ne* (Anglosaxon *nē*), which always preceded the predicative verb: *Devyne ye, for I ne dar* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 13.). This *ne* was in Anglosaxon and in Old-English sometimes blended with the following verb, as *habban, villan, vitan, vesan*, in which the initial consonant was cast off, as *nabban, nillan, nesan* &c., Old-English *nave* = *have not*; *nill* = *will not*; *niste* = *wiste not*; *nam. nis, nas, nere* = *am, is was, were not* &c. In print we often find *n'am, n'is, n'hath* &c. with the mark of elision. These Anglosaxon negative particles coincided in form with the Old-French *ne*.

This *ne* is to be distinguished from another *ne*, which answered to the Anglosaxon *nē, neque*, and in reduplication was equal to the Latin *neque* — *neque*, Anglosaxon *nē — nē*: *Lewed men ne koude Jangle ne jugge* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 9.). There is no *bawme ne gumme* of Arabe More delectable (SKELTON I. 303.). This *ne* is obsolete, but is found here and there, for instance in L. Byron. Modern-English commonly replaces the single *ne* (*nē*) by *nor*, the reduplicated by *neither* = *nor*. See the Conjunction.

The simple negation has, as in other Germanic tongues, yielded to that compound one in which itself constitutes the negative element, and whose expletives originally followed the verb in order to strengthen it. In Modern-English it appears as *not*, which is the shorter form for *naught, nought*, Old-English also *noght, nat* &c. is, the Anglosaxon *nāviht, nāuht, nāht, nōht, nāt*, that is *ne-ā-viht* (*vuht*), *ne — unquam — hilum* (*creatura*), *nihil*. Compare the original separation of *ne — viht* in the Anglosaxon: *He ne mehte viht gefeohtan, non potuit pugnare* (Beov. 2160.).

The strengthened negation early appeared alongside of *ne*: *Thei wil noughte, that thei dyen of kindly dethe* MAUNDEV. p. 194.). *Thei wol noght come there* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 67.). *My strengthe may not be told* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 3.). *He was not pale as a forpined gost* (CHAUCER p. 2. II. Tyrwh.). And where *not, noght* is to be taken as properly a substantive indefinite pronoun, *nothing* also took its place (see below), which still occurs in moderns as a strengthened negation: *You know it well and feel it nothing* (L. BYRON).

In Old-English however these strengthened negatives are very commonly added to the *ne = non* and *ne = neque*, as the accumulation of negatives was familiar to Old-English: *This ne yeveth noght of God etc.* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 67.). *Nothing ne knew that it was Arcite* (CHAUCER p. 12. I. Tyrwh.). *Ne con ich saien non falsdom Ne non I ne shal* (DAME SIRIZ p. 4.). *Hit semyd hym never ne never shalle* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 4.). Similar accumulations are still found in Modern-English: *Harp not on that; nor do not banish reason For incredulity* (SHAKSP. Meas. for Meas.), yet are rejected by grammarians.

Modern strengthenings of *not* by substantive accusatives, denoting a trifling object, among which even a *whit* (from the Anglosaxon *viht*) again occurs, are analogous to similar ones in Old-French. Old-English: To be corsed . . The counteth *noght a bene* (not a bean) (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 51.), when *never* often appears instead of *not*: never a del, never a whyt &c. Modern-English: Th' one has my pity; *not a jot* the other (SHAKSP. Meas. for Meas.). I perceive, you delight not in music. — „*Not a whit*, when it jars so.“ (Two Gentl. of V.). Here belongs also not a bit &c. A similar one is effected by other adverbial determinations, as not at all &c.

In rapid utterance *not* is attracted enclitically, even with the loss of its vowel, to a preceding word, as in *can't*, *don't* &c., *wouldn't* &c.

Instead of the negation *not* there also appears *no*, Old-English *na*, *no*, before adverbs. If the origin of *no* in *nowhere* is dubious (compare anywhere, everywhere) and *no* appears as the indefinite pronoun, although the Old-English *neverwhere* also occurs instead, it unquestionably is equivalent to the Anglosaxon *nā*, *nō* = *ne-ā*, *nunquam*, *non*, before comparatives. Compare Anglosaxon *nō pȳ lās*, Old-English *natheless*, Modern-English *nevertheless*, as opposed to the affirmative Anglosaxon *ā pȳ mā*, *eo magis*, compare *evermore*, now equal to *always*. Modern-English: I can go *no farther*, sir (SHAKSP. Temp.). I will put off my hope, and keep it *no longer* for my flatterer (IB.). Hold up the jest *no higher* (Merry Wiv.). Go, sin *no more*! (LONGFELLOW). To die is *no less* natural than those acts of this clay (L. BYRON). This *no* rarely stands before other than adverbial comparatives, as in: It will seem *no more* to thee Than if . . I should a little longer stay Than I am used (LONGFELLOW). Old-English: & ne myȝte *noleng* sytte (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 185.). He was so wery, that he myȝhte *no ferther* (MAUNDEV. p. 148.). It renne the *no furthermore* (p. 102.). I suffre yow *no lenger* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 65.). *Na-moore* (as little) myȝhte God be man (p. 343.); yet also before the comparative used substantively: I kan *na-moore* seggen (p. 53.).

The obsolete negative is expressed by the same *no*, compare Gothic *ne*, in the dialects of the North of England still *na*. But alongside of it stands the now little used *nay*, which only accidentally coincides with the Old-French *naie*, and represents the same word as *no* (Anglosaxon *ne-ā*). Compare above the adverb *aye*, p. 390, and below *ay* for yes. In Old-English it is frequently used for *no*: Thei seyn simply *ȝe*, and *nay* (MAUNDEV. p. 292.). He . . that couth not say *nay* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 112.). Can he hem thank? *Nay*, God wot, never a del (CHAUCER p. 23. II. Tyrwh.). In Modern-English it is often, like the Latin *immo*, used in outbiddings: „Are all prepared?“ — They are — *nay* more — embark'd (L. BYRON). Also in challenges and exhortations: *Nay* then! And not a word said he. — *Nay*, why so downcast? Jaapar cried (SOUTHEY). Also the Old-English formula: By *ya* or *nay*! (CHAUCER) is still found in Modern-English: By *yea* and *nay*! by my faith! (SHAKSP. Merry Wiv. 4, 2. Love's L. L. 1, 1.). Whence the old verb *denay*, approaching in sound to the Romance *deny*.

The absolute affirmation is denoted by the obsolescent *yea*, Old-English *ȝe* (DAME SIRIZ, MAUND.), *ȝe*, which still stands frequently in Skelton, and *ȝa*, Anglosaxon *gea*, etiam, sane, signifies, and is still commonly opposed to the *nay*, and is preserved mostly in solemn speech; but the affirmation is commonly effected by *yes*, the amplified *ȝe*, Anglosaxon *gese*, *gise*, *gyse*, that is, sane — sit (*se* — *ste*, *sī*). Alongside of it *ay*, Anglosaxon *ā* = *ever*, in northern dialects also *aw* (Warwickshire), is still in a limited measure current, to which perhaps the West-English *yaw* = *yes* belongs. In the older writings *i* is frequently found for it, which has been perhaps produced through the common pronunciation of the *ay*. Compare „All ready?“ cried the captain; „*Ay, ay*“ the seamen said (WHITTIER).

We may also regard as substitutes for adverbial particles sentences and elliptical expressions, for which perhaps adverbs might be substituted, as: *may be*; *howbeit* = however; *as it were*, *as't were* (SHAKESPEARE); *as though it were*; *to wit*; *to be sure* and the like, which sufficiently betray their original syntactical relation, and penetrate out of the more rapid colloquial into the written language.

2) The Preposition.

Prepositions, or words of relation, stand in immediate relation to a noun, whose relation to the notion of the activity they denote in a less general, more closely defined manner than is done by the case alone. The preposition denotes primarily a relation of space, is then transferred to the temporal, and finally extended to causal and modal relations. The more modern and periphrastic prepositions sometimes have no longer the original reference of this part of speech to relations of space.

The English prepositions are mostly founded upon Anglosaxon ones, which could frequently be combined with two and even three different cases, whereas in English they all appear with the same oblique case.

Prepositions are divided, on the one hand, according to their form, into simple and compound; on the other hand, into those founded upon ancient particles and those demonstrably founded upon nouns, with or without prefixed particles. Lastly we may here place periphrastic forms, serving as substitutes for prepositions.

We accordingly distinguish: a) prepositions proper, or, those resting upon particles; b) prepositions developed out of nouns; c) prepositional forms.

a) Prepositions proper are partly simple, partly compound. The simple ones do not contain derivatives.

1) Simple are:

in, Anglosaxon *in*, with dat. acc. *in*, ad, Old-English the same. *In* in careless speech sometimes casts off its *n*, especially before the article: *I' the death of darkness* (SHAKESPEARE Temp.).

at, Anglosaxon *āt*, with dat. *an*, *in*, *apud*, *ab*, *de*.

on, Anglosaxon *on*, *an*, *ō*, *ā*, with dat. *in*, *cum*; with acc. *in*, *contra*, Old-English *on*, *an*, *a*. *On* is sometimes shortened to *o'*: *A pox o' your throat* (SHAKSP. Temp.), where it may inaptly

be taken for *of*, although *on* and *of* are interchanged. It frequently passed into *a*. Comp.: the adverbs compounded with *a*, *abed* &c. Here belongs also the combination of *a* with the gerundive substantive in *ing*: The spring is near when green geese are *a breeding* (SHAKSP. Love's L. L. 1, 1.). There are worthies *a coming* (5, 2.). Like a German clock still *a repairing*, ever out of frame (3, 1.). Hence: to be *a coming*, to fall *a trembling* &c., to which also: Having sworn too *hard-a-keeping* oath (SHAKSP. Love's L. L. 1, 1.) may belong. In Old-English *on* and *a* interchange in this case: Ne non that gothe *on beggyng* (MAUNDEV. p. 207.); in Chaucer: to ride *on hunting*, *on hawking*, to go *a begging* &c.

of, Anglosaxon *of*, *af*, *āf*, with dat. *a*, *de*, *ex*, Old-English *of*, *af*. The shortening of *of* into *o'* is familiar: It is the quality *o'* the climate (SHAKSP. Temp.). Because their business still lies out *o'* door (Com. of Err.). Mine eyes are made the fools *o'* th' other senses (Macb.). Body *o'* me! what inn is this! (LONGFELLOW). Hence: a Tom *o'* Bedlam, vagabonds, also called Abrahamman. The popular *o' clock* rests upon *of clock*: Four *of the clock* it was tho (CHAUCER). Chaunte-clere . . Must tell what is *of the clocke* (SKELTON I, 66.). Modern-English: It was almost eight *of the clock* (FIELDING). Yet we also say *a clock*, which seems to lead back to *on*; comp.: At twelve *aclock* at night (BALLAD by Tarlton 1570.).

off, is a collateral form of *of*, now often adverbial. Compare too off hand—at once, and others. Old-English: pou art mon *off* strange lond (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 115.).

up, Anglosaxon *up*, *upp*, *uppe*, adv. sursum; in English also a genuine preposition opposed to *down*; compare *up hill* &c. — We may here incidentally mention the adverbial *upsidedown*, which seems to be a disfigurement of the Old-English *upsidown*.

by, Anglosaxon *bē*, *bi* *bī*, *big*, c. dat. juxta, ad, in, de. Old-English *be*, *by*, even in Skelton often *be*: *Be* my fay! (I. 28.).

for, Anglosaxon *for*, c. dat., acc.: pro, ante, propter; Old-English the same.

from, Anglosaxon *fram*, *from*, c. dat., a, ab. Old-English *fram*, *from*, *fron* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 106.), *fro*, *fra*, still *fra*, *frae* in northern dialects. Old-English very often has *fro*: *Fro* the by-gynnyng of pe world (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 9.); along with *from*: *From* oure firste fader Adam (ib.). And so he departed *fro* hem (MAUNDEV. p. 225). *Fro* the londe (GOWER in HALLIWELL s. v. dreint). *Fro* and *fra* Chaucer has; *fram* stands alongside of *from*, *fro* in Piers Ploughman. *Fro* is now considered an adverb only.

with, Anglosaxon *wið* (also *vid*), c. gen., coram, c. dat., pone, juxta, pro, contra, c. acc., ad, juxta. Old-English the same.

till, Anglosaxon, Old-norse *til*, c. dat., ad; comp. adj. *til*, aptus. Old-English *til*.

to, Anglosaxon *tō*, c. dat., ad. Old-English *to*; in Modern-English we distinguish the particles *too*, in Old-English likewise commonly spelt *to*, from the preposition, Anglosaxon *tō*, as an adverb insuper. *To*, which is also joined to the infinitive, is sometimes

shortened into *t'*, especially before vowels: To learn his wit *t'* exchange the bad for better (SHAKESPEARE *Two Gentl. of V.*). Being once perfected how to grant suits, How to deny them, whom *t'* advance &c. (*Temp.*).

Here also we may mention the two foreign prepositions, which have thrust themselves in.

per, Latin *per*, distributive = *for*: A man earns 30 shillings *per* week, how much does he earn *per* annum? (CROSSLEY.) If I am charged 3 pence *per* mile &c. (ID.). To find the interest of any sum of money at 6 *per* cent (ID.); where the mingling of the Latin *per* and *pro*, occurring in Old-French, *pour*, *por* shews itself.

sans, Old-French *sans*, *sanx*, still frequently used in Shakspeare, not merely in an affected manner, now out of use. Old-English *sauz*, *saunce*. Religion *saunz* rule (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 263.).

Among the derivative prepositions of this class are to be reckoned:

ere, poetical as a preposition (SHAKSP., DRYDEN). Anglosaxon *ær*, c. dat. ante, of the same sound as the adverbial comparative *ær*, prius, antea, belonging to *áv*. Old-English *er*, *or*: or this; or his nativitee (CHAUCER). *Ore* even in Shakspeare, *All's well* &c. 1, 3.

after, Anglosaxon *āfter*, c. dat. post, belonging to *āft* and *af*, *of*. Old-English the same.

over, Anglosaxon *ofer*, c. dat., acc., ultra, post, to *ufa*, adv., supra Old-English the same. *v* is often elided: *o'er*.

under, Anglosaxon *under*, c. dat., acc., sub, subter, subtus. Compare Gothic *und*, *ad*.

forth = out of, otherwise an adverb. Anglosaxon *forð*, inde, still occurs as a preposition. See L. Byron 2, p. 130. ed. Lips.

through, occasionally abridged *thro'*. Anglosaxon *purh* (*puruh*, *pērh*), c. dat., acc., *per*, propter. Gothic *pairh*. Old-English *thor*, *thurgh*, *thrughe* (PERCY Rel.), *poru*, *thorowe*, *thorow*, *thorough* &c.

The form *thorough* occurs now in compounds; Shakspeare still has it as a preposition: And *thorough* this distemperature, we see The seasons alter (*Mids. N. Dr.* 2, 1.).

since, has developed itself out of the Anglosaxon adverb *siððan*, *sippan*, *siððen*, *sēððan*, also *siðða* (from the adverb *sið*, *serius*). Rob. of Gloucester often has *seppe* as an adverb; *seth* is still found in the fifteenth century. The abridged form *sithe*, *sith*, early occurs as a preposition: *Sithe* the tyme of Sowdan Sahaladyn (MAUNDEV. p. 44. ib. 148.). From *sithen* proceeded on the one hand the shorter *sin*, which still survives in dialects, on the other the amplified genitive form *sithenes*, *sithence*, from which *since* arose.

2) Compounded of particles are:

into, Anglosaxon *intō*. Old-English the same. Old-English also possessed *intil*: Turne . . *intil* oon bileve (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 258. compare HAVELOK 130.). Compare *until*.

out of, appear in English disconnected, and might therefore be compared with the syntactically connected *up to*, *up till*, *from under*, *from among*, *from beyond* &c.; yet *out* is, in contradistinction

tion to the casual connection of other prepositions with an object already more particularly determined by a preposition, always accompanied by *of*. Anglosaxon *útof*, prep., Matth. 7, 5 &c. Old-norse *útaf*, whereas in Anglosaxon *úte*, *út*, extra, also occurs as a preposition with the dative. In dialects *ut* is still in use for *out*. The combination *out of* also belongs to Old-English.

until, and *unto*, are compounds of *til* and *to* with the particle, which answers to the Gothic *untē*, Old-Anglosaxon *unti*, Old-Highdutch *unzi*. Compare Old-Highdutch *unz ze = unto*.

upon, Anglosaxon *uppan*, *uppon*, c. dat., acc., super, post, contra. Old-English *upon*, *apon*.

underneath, Anglosaxon *underneodan*, and *beneath*, Anglosaxon *beneodan*, *benidan*, from the adverb *neodan*, *deorsum*. Old-English *undernethe*, *binethen*, *bynethe*. The simple *neath* in the same meaning is considered an abbreviation: And 'neath her bodice of bright scarlet dye Convulsive clasps it to her heart (LONGFELLOW). The snowbird twittered on the beechen bough And 'neath the hemlock (BRYANT).

afore, Anglosaxon *onforan*, c. acc., and *before*. Anglosaxon *beforan*, c. dat., acc., ante, coram. Old-English *aforen*, *aforne*, *afore* and *beforen*, *beforne*, *before*. The Old-English *toform*, *tofore* is lost as a preposition. Anglosaxon *tíforan*, *tífor*, c. dat., ante, coram, pro: *Tofore* alle opere (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 2.). At Salisbury *touore* hym (II. 377.). Lyveris *toform* us (before us living) (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 235.). The simple *fore* is treated as an abbreviation: Places the ransomed child, new born, 'fore the face of its father (LONGFELLOW)

behind, Anglosaxon *behindan*, adv. retro, post. Old-English *behinde*. The older dialects and northern ones even now have *ahint*.

beyond, Anglosaxon *begeondan*, c. acc., according to Boswell also *begeond*, trans, ultra. Old-English *bizende* (DAME SIRIZ p. 5.), *bizunde* (HALLIWELL s. v.), *biyonde*, *beyond*.

but, is commonly no longer regarded as a preposition, but is decidedly such in sentences like: All *but* one were lost (SMITH). Anglosaxon *bútan* = *be útan*, c. dat., sine, praeter. Old-English *but*, often *bout* (compare about), as still in northern dialects *bout = without*.

within, Anglosaxon *viðinnan*, from *við* prep., c. dat., acc. and *innan*, in use in the compound as an adverb; Old-English *with-inne*.

without, Anglosaxon *viðútan*, from *við* prep., c. dat., acc., and *útan*, likewise current in the compound as an adverb. Old-English *withouten*, *withowten*, *withhouten* (DAME SIRIZ p. 7.)

throughout, an Old-English compound: *poru out al* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 377.). *Thorghe out* many othere iles ((MAUNDEV. p. 4.). *thurghout* &c.

Compounded of three particles are:

above, Anglosaxon *bufan* = *be úfan*, c. dat., supra, with the prefixed preposition *á*, compare *abútan*. Old-English *abufe*, *abuf* (TOWNEL. MYST.), *aboven*, *above*, *aboon*, *abone*, *abowen*, *abowe*,

aboun &c. The old *bore* is likewise found in early times: Bi houre Loverd, hevene king, That ous is *bore*! (DAME SIRIZ p. 5.). In modern times '*bore*' appears as an abbreviation of *above*: His bold head '*Bore* the contentious waves he kept (SHAKSP. Temp.).

about, Anglosaxon prep. *ábútan* = *a be útan*, along with which *bútan*; c. dat., sine, praeter (see but). Old-English *abouten* (still in use in the East of Sussex), *abowght* &c.: *Abouten* Inde (MAUNDEV. p. 4.). The crounes . . *abouten* here hedes (p. 188). Beren beighes . . *Abouten* hire nekkes (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 10.). *Abouten* prime (CHAUCER 2191.). In the dialects of the North of England however *abut* is equal to *but*. — '*bout*' is shortened from *about*: In troops I have dispers'd them '*bout* the isle (SHAKSP. Temp.).

b) Prepositions arising from Nouns.

The oldest and most important amongst these are compounded of particles and nouns, and their appearance without a particle is mostly to be considered as arising from the rejection of the latter.

1) Compound particles of this sort arise

from substantives:

among, *amongst*, the latter of which forms, like similar ones, has arisen from the older form with a (genitive) *s* by the adoption of an inorganic *t* (comp. against, amidst). Anglosaxon *ámang*, *onmang*, c. dat., inter, cum, apud, from the subst. *mang*, mixtura. Old-English *amang* (ROB. OF BRUNNE, Scottish and in dialects of the North of England), *among*, *emang*, *amonges*, *emonges*, *emongs* (JACK JUGLER), also *emongst*. The form in *es* is old, for instance in Maundeville, Piers Ploughman and Chaucer. The *a* is often thrown off in Modern-English: No marrying '*mong* his subjects (SHAKSP. Temp.). The keenest eye might search in vain, '*Mong* briers . . For the spot &c. (BRYANT). The ways that wind '*mongst* the proud piles (ID.).

adown, Anglosaxon *ádúne*, adv. deorsum, from the subst. *dún*, mons. Old-English *adown*, *adoune*; frequently simply *down*. Old-English *doun* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER p. 208 in HALLIWELL s. v.).

across. Old-norse *kross* = Latin *crux*, Old-French *croiz*, *cruiz*, *cruz*; Smart even cites the simple *cross* as a preposition. *Across* as a preposition seems to belong to modern times.

against, Anglosaxon *ongegn*, *ongén*, *ágén*; c. acc., contra, adversus, alongside of the simple *gāgn*, *gén*, adverb, which appears as an accusative. Besides that *tógegn*, *togénes* stands as a preposition, c. dat., acc., contra. Old-English frequently *azen*, *azeyn*, *agein*, *ageyne*, *again* as a preposition from Rob. of Gloucester to Skelton, also with the meaning *e regione*: *Azeyn* Fraunce stonde pe contre of Chichestre (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 6.); like *over* *again* now; also = *towards*: To riden *again* the quene (CHAUCER 4811.); alongside thereof *againes*, *ageins*, *agens* (Scottish *aganis*), *ayenst* is an Old-English form: Many other dyverse schapp, *ayenst* kynde (MAUNDEV. p. 223.). It stands abbreviated as '*gainst*: '*Gainst* form and order they their power emply (DRYDEN). „All the nations . . are loud in wrath *against* thee“. — „'*Gainst* me!“ (L. BYRON). — *Gain*; *gainer*; *gainest*, *near*; *nearest*; *nearest* is in use dialectically as an adjective in the North of England, and occurs

also, in other significations, as: *easy, dexterous, convenient*. Compare Anglosaxon adverb *ungāgne*, inepte. The simple *gain*, contra, is still found in a few compounds.

beside, besides, Anglosaxon *be sidan*, ad latus. The form *besides* is not, as Halliwell thinks, inferior to the others in age. Comp. Old-English: *Bi syde* Scotland hem zef a place (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 143.). *Bysydes* hym (283).

often from adjectives.

amid, amidst, Anglosaxon: a form *amidd*, *amid* from the adj. *midd*, *medius* is wanting; on the other hand *tō middes*; c. gen., dat., inter, according to Bosworth also *on middan*, *ā middan*, in media parte, compare Old-norse *ā medan*, interim. Like the gen. sing. neutr. *middes*, the dat. plur. *middum* was also used as an adverb in medio. Old-English has early *amid*, *amyd*, *amydde* and *amid-des*; *middes* is here even regarded as a substantive: *Amiddes* of the tempul (CHAUCER 2011.). *In pe middes* of pe world (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 61.); whence the substantive *midst*; and in *mid-des* is likewise used prepositionally: Men setten him . . *in middes* the place of his tent (MAUNDEV. p. 253.).

As abbreviations *'mid*, *'midst* occur, to which however the mark of elision is often not prefixed: A youth, who bore, *'mid* snow and ice, A banner with the strange device: Excelsior! (LONGFELLOW). The clear pure lymph, That from the wounded trees . . Falls, *mid* the golden brightness of the moon, Is gathered in (BRYANT). Whither, *midst* falling dew . . dost thou pursue The solitary way? (ID.).

With the now lost preposition *mid*, Anglosaxon *mid*, c. dat. cum, this *mid* has nothing in common. Compare Old-English: Hors and Hengist . . Come to Kent . . *Myd* pre schipful of knyhtes (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 111.).

anent = opposite to, concerning, about, which modern lexicographers denote a Scotticism, is an Old-English as well as Scottish word. Its fundamental form is *anen*, its fundamental meaning, opposite. Anglosaxon *on efn*, *on emn*, e regione, contra, from the adj. *ēfen*. Compare Old-English: And *anen* that vale of Josaphate . . is the chirche of seynt Stevenne (MAUNDEV. p. 80.).

With *anen* is primarily connected *anens* (also *anense*, HALLIWELL v. *anenst*; onence ID. s. v.), comp. also *afore nens*, perhaps always to be spelt *aforenens* = opposite to and the Old-English and Scottish *anenst*, still *enenst*, *forenenst* in northern dialects. An amplification by an unorganic *t* gave *anent* (now especially in Lancashire, Derbyshire &c.) *anont* in Wiltshire, also *foranent* in the North of England, to which the primitive genitive *es* was early appended, *aneyntes*, *anentis*: Unto *aneyntes* Egypt and toward Ethiopie (MAUNDEV. p. 143.). Alle that comen *aneyntes* hem (p. 298.). An other literary form is *anends*. See Craven Dialect. I. p. 8. The form in *es* is found even in the Anglosaxon *tō emnes*, plane. Compare moreover the Old-Highdutch in *ēban* = meaning *beside*.

along, dialectically and Old-English also *alongst* (HALLIWELL s. v.), is deformed from the Anglosaxon *andlang*, c. gen., in longum, per. Old-English *endelong*: *Endelong* Bretaigne and the like.

(CHAUCER), see above p. 404. *Along* is not to be confounded with the simple *long*, which is used with the accusative with reference to time, and may be regarded as a preposition (although placed after the noun): The nightingale shall cease to chant the evening *long* (BRYANT).

athwart, also *overthwart*, even in MAUNDEV. p. 211., also as an adjective in Skelton I. 27., see p. 392. *aslant* and *askaunt*, *askaunce* the same, see the corresponding adverbs p. 405.

around, along with which the simple *round* occurs, is formed after the Old-French *roond*, *round*, *reond*, Old-English also *aroun* (KING ALISAUNDER 6603.), as still in northern dialects. The English formation perhaps leaned upon the Old-French *a la roonde*, *a la reõnde*.

below. See the adverb p. 405.

between and *betwixt*. *Between* arises from the Anglosaxon *betwēnum* (dat. plur. from the substantive *twēona*, *twýna* = interstes), also *betwýnan* (dat. sing.), which stands as a preposition with the dative; this form belongs therefore properly to the substantive forms. Old-English *betwene*, along with which also *atwene*, *attween*, *occured*, which still survives in *atween*, especially in the North of England. Even the mere *twene* was used as a preposition: *Twene hope and drede My lyfe I lede* (SKELTON I. 424.). *Betwixt* rests upon the Anglosaxon *betwihs*, *betweohs*, *betveox*, *betwux*, alongside of which *betwux* occurred, c. dat., acc., inter; a simpler form was *betwih*, inter, belonging to the adv. *twih*, intra, from *twi*, duo. Old-English *betwix* and *betwixen*, *betwixt*, alongside whereof also *atwix*, *atwixen*, *atwixt*, the latter whereof is still in use, for example, in Suffolk. The Promptorium Parvulorum (sec. XV.) has *atwexyn*, *atwyrne*, *atwyr*. — *Betwixt* often appears shortened into *'twixt*: The time *'twixt* six and now (SHAKSP. Temp.). And *'twixt* the heavy swaths his children were at play (BRYANT).

toward, *towards*, gen. Anglosaxon *tōweardes*, c. dat., versus, belonging to the adj. *veard*, *vergens* (only in compounds), whence *tōveard* = futurus. Old-English *toward* alongside of *towards*. In Old-English both elements of the compound were often separated by the substantive referred to them: *To wodewarde wyll I flee* (PERCY Rel. p. 98. II.). *To Doverre ward* (p. 90. II.). *To Thebes ward*; *to Troie wardes* &c. (CHAUCER). *To me warde* (SKELTON I. 46.). Hence even in Modern-English: I take my course *To seawarde* (TURBEVILLE'S Ovid. 1567.). *To God ward* (2 Cor. 3, 4.); with which the substantive forms are allied, as in: *That vessel to the windward yonder* (LONGFELLOW). *The mountains piled to the northward* (WHITTIER).

Moreover *ward* was also compounded with other prepositions: As *fram ward* Teukesburi (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 543.). *From Burdeux ward* (CHAUCER 399.). *Thi (thou?) lext amidward thi teth* "thou liest through thy teeth" (GY OF WARWICK p. 154.).

An imitation of a Romance form is *withal*, which from older times has followed its substantive, retaining however the effect of a preposition. Old-English: *Ony mon . . . that him list to speke with alle* (MAUNDEV. p. 24.). Modern-English: *A merrier man . . .*

I never spent an hour's talk *withal* (SHAKSP. Love's L. L. 2, 1.). The best rule of life *that* ever the world was acquainted *withal* (TILLOTSON). It answers to the Old-French *a tot, a toz*. We may regard *al* as well as *tot* as strengthening of *with, a*.

- 2) Some simple and compound nouns, in which however the compounding does not entail the prepositional character, may, in connection with the oblique case, pass as prepositions. They are in part borrowed or imitated from the Old-French.

The prepositional employment of *nigh, near (next)*, Anglosaxon *neah*; c. dat. *prope, juxta*, rests upon Anglosaxon usage, and also answers to the Highdutch *naechst* as a preposition.

save, saving, Old-French *sauf, sauf, salv* &c., also for *hormis, excepté*. Old-English *sauf, save* and *saving* (CHAUCER) in the same meaning: No man might gladden this duk Theseus *Saving* his olde fader (2839. Tyrwh.). The popular forms *saving your reverence, saving your presence*, wherein *saving* may be rendered by *without prejudice to* (SHAKSPEARE Rom. 1, 4.), are old forms of courtesy or of exculpation for undue speech.

traverse. Old-French *travers*, a preposition, also without the addition of *a, de* or *en*.

Participles of the present, as *during*, Old-French *durant*; *notwithstanding*, Old-French *nonostant, nonobstant*; *touching, concerning, respecting*, French *touchant, concernant* &c. are imitations of Romance forms. Old-English has taken up similar forms directly, as *moyenaunt*, Old-French *moyennant*.

Participles of the past also occur thus: the originally Anglosaxon *ago*, always following its substantive, works prepositionally from olden times with the meaning *since*; properly, *passed*, from the Anglosaxon *âgangan, âgân, praeterire*. Old-English *agon*. I have here with my cosin Palamon Had strif and rancour *many a day agon* (CHAUCER 2785. Tyrwh. i-gon Wright). Even in Shakespeare *agone*: Above an hour *agone*. Romance forms are *except, French excepté; past = beyond, above, after*, which is attached to the French *passé*; in use in olden times: It is *past* all remedye (SKELTON Merie Tales.).

Even the Romance *maugre*, in compound formed into a substantive, still in use, at least in burlesque speech, is frequent in Old-English: *Maugre* the Philistins of that citee; *maugre* his head; *maugre* thin eyen; also *maugre* his (CHAUCER). Occasionally *maugre, magre, mauger* operates as a substantive: *In the mauger* of doughte Dogles (PERCY Rel. p. 2.). *Magre* of our beard (see DYCE ed. SKELTON I. p. CXII.); so that it coincides with *spite, despite*, Old-French *despit*, used in like manner: Then must I save him *Spite* of himself (L. BYRON). He gazed — how long we gaze *despite* of pain, And know, we dare not own, we gaze in vain (ID.); for which the periphrastic *in spite*, Old-French *en despit*, stands. Compare Old-English: *In the spyt* of me PERCY Rel. p. 2.).

-) Prepositional forms:

We reckon here those combinations of substantives with prepositions, operating approximately as prepositions, in which the substantive as such remains effective, and therefore only appears with

the intervention of the case preposition *of*, or combined with a genitive or a possessive pronoun. They are by no means all modern formations, but are attached partly to Anglosaxon and Old-French forms.

1) To Germanic manners of expression are attached:

in behalf (of), occasionally *on behalf*, also with the possessive pronoun: *In my behalf*, *on his behalf* &c. Anglosaxon *healf*, *half*, yet Oldfrieslandish *bihalva*, Hollandish *behalven*, *praeter*. Old-English *on* (a) . . . *halfe* &c., yet also *on* . . . *behalve*: Come in, *on Godes halfe* (CHEST. PLAYS). It shall not lacke certaine *on mine halve*, properly *on myside* (CHAUCER Troil. a. Cress. IV. 945.). *On Goddes halfe!* (SKELTON I. 128.). And commaunded hem, *on Goddes behalve* &c. (MAUNDEV. p. 225.).

instead (of), also *in his stead*, along with *instead of him*. Anglosaxon *in* (on) *stede*, *in loco*, *instar* (LYE). Old-English *in stede*, also *in hys stede*.

on this side, *on the other side* (of). Compare the Anglosaxon on *eallum sîdum*. *On this side* is treated quite as a preposition and combined with the oblique case: *On this side* the Rhine etc. Benedict, I fear, has views *on this side* heav'n (H. WALPOLE). Old-English rather used *on this half* in like manner: *On this half* the see (MAUNDEV. p. 20). *Alle the londes and contrees on this half* the mount Belyan (p. 227.). Dialectically *a this side* is also used of time: *a this side Christmas*.

by way (of). Comp. *by way of apology*. Anglosaxon *vêg*, via Old-norse *vêgna* (gen.), *propter*, *pro*.

by dint (of). Anglosaxon *dynt*, *ictus*, *percussio*, comp. Hollandish *uit kracht*, perhaps formed upon the French *à force de*. *Dint* is familiar to Old-English and Old-Scottish for *blow*, *stroke*.

for the sake (of), often with the Saxon genitive and the possessive pronoun: *for God's sake*, *for glory's sake*, *for your sake* &c. Old-norse *fyrir sakir* also merely *sökum* (dat. plur.) *propter*. The Anglosaxon *saca* was not thus employed, but instead of it *ping*: for *mînes vîfes pingum*, *uxoris meae causa*; for *mînum pingum*, *mea causa*. Old-English: *For mercies sake* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN. p. 183.). *For my promise sake* I forgeue thee (SKELTON Marie Tales). *Sake* appears also in the plural in reference to several: *For both our sakes* (SHAKSP. Taming of the Shrew 5, 2.). *For your fair sakes* have we neglected time (Love's L. L. 5, 2.). *For our own sakes* And for our honour (L. BYRON). But once in, with their hilts hot in their hands, They must *on for* their own *sakes* (ID.).

2) With Romance forms are ranked:

in lieu (of), French *au lieu de*, assimilated to the Germanic *instead*: *In lieu* of the promises (SHAKSPEARE Temp.), also in Lord Byron.

in regard (of), Old-French *ou regard d'elles* (AMYOT).

in front (of), = French *en face de*.

in (by) *virtue* (of), French *en vertu de*.

in spite, *despite* (of), Old-French *en despit de*. Old-English is *the spyt of*. See above.

in consequence (of), French *en conséquence de*.

on account (of). Compare French *mettre, passer en compte*.

by means (of), French *au moyen de*. Compare: Divers other gentlemen bidden thither *by* Skeltons means (DYCE ed. SKELTON I. p. lxxxv.).

by reason (of), French *à raison de*.

because (of), dialectically also *cause*, French *à cause de*. *Because* has been in use from olden times, and is found in Chaucer.

Here also are reckoned Gerunds to which the object is annexed with *to*, as, *owing* (to), Old-English also *awing* (Anglosaxon *āgan*, *habere*, *potiri*), in which meaning in Old-English and even later *long of* was used: It was not *long of* me, in faith, That I went at this time (GAULFRIDO AND BARNARDO 1570.). Compare Anglosaxon *gelang* (on, *āt*), *pertinens ad*. Here also belongs *according* (to), from the old verb *accorden*, *acorden* and the like.

Many simple and compound Anglosaxon prepositions have been abandoned in English, or only preserved in a few compounds. Old-English still possessed some of them: *eac* as a preposition c. dat. connected cardinal with ordinal numbers, Old-English *eke*, *etiam*, operated only as a conjunction. — *ymbe*, *ymb*, *imbe*, *embe*, *emb*, c. acc. circa, intra, erga, Modern-Highdutch *um*. Old-English *umbe*, *umbi*, *um*, frequent in compounds: *umbeclappe*, *umbeset*, *umbethinke*, *umgife*, *amthynke*, *umshade* &c. — *ōd* c. gen., dat., acc., usque ad, compare Old-Highdutch *uns*. — *mid* (mid) c. dat. cum, Old-norse *mēd*, Old-English *mid* (see *amid*), frequent as a preposition in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER. Compare KYNO ALISAUNDER 852. — *geond* c. acc. ultra, still in northern dialects *yont* (see beyond). — *hinder* c. dat. post, now used adjectively. — Old-norse *imil-lum*, *āmillum*, Danish *imellem*, Swedish *emellem*, between, among. Old-English *ymelle*, *ymell*, *emelle*, abandoned in Modern-English. — *innan*, c. dat., acc. in. Old-English *inne* as an adverb, as also in Anglosaxon.

binnan, *binnon*, c. dat. in, intra. Old-English *binne*, *byn* (RITSON) = *within*. In Yorkshire *ben* is still used for *in*, *into*; on the other hand *bin* passes in Somerset for *because*, which perhaps belongs here. — *onin*, *oninnan* (intus, intra), *onufan*, *onufon* and *onuppan* (super, supra) seem not imitated, whereas *ināt* for instance, is connected (PERCY Rel. p. 3, 2.). — *utan*, *uton*, c. dat. extra, Old-English *outen*, *uten*, still dialectically, partly adjectively in use for *foreign*, *strange*. The compounds *ūtanymb* and *ymbūtan* seem not imitated. — *bāftan*, c. dat. post, sine, may be contained in the Old-English *baft*, in the sense of *abaft* — *viðgeondan*, circa, *tōeac* and *tōeacan*, c. dat. praeter, insuper, *gehende*, c. dat. apud, and others are wanting in English. Other Anglosaxon prepositions have been mentioned above.

3) The Conjunction.

Those particles which constitute the bond of sentences, and, accordingly, in contraction, of the members of a sentence, are called conjunctions.

We distinguish those conjunctions which connect sentences grammatically homogeneous, as conjunctions in the stricter sense, from subordinating conjunctions, which originally connect the subordinate with the principal sentence.

English conjunctions, with trifling exceptions, spring from the Anglosaxon. There appear among them, besides the particles serving

solely to connect sentences, prepositions and adverbs also, which undertake allied functions.

a) Coordinating conjunctions, or conjunctions in the stricter sense.

- 1) They are first copulative, if they link together sentences homogeneous in form. Here belong *and*, Anglosaxon *and*, *et*, *etiam*, Old-English *and*, sometimes mutilated to *a*, as even now in dialects (HALLIWELL v. a. 14.). — *also*, Anglosaxon *ealswā*, *alswā*, *sic*, *etiam*, Old-English *alswa*, *alsway* (TOWNEL. MYST.), *also*, *also*, *als* (comp. below *as*), beside which stands *likewise*, from the Anglosaxon *gelic* and *wise*, comp. Old-English *glyche*, *iliche*, Anglosaxon *gelice*, *pariter*. — *eke* is obsolete, (SHAKSP.), Anglosaxon *eac*, *ec*, *etiam*, Old-English from *ekyn*, compare Anglosaxon *tō eacan*, *insuper*. — *too*, Anglosaxon *tō*, prep. and adv., *insuper*, Old-English *to*, *too*. — *besides* and *beside* (see prepositions); *withal* (see prepositions) and *therewithal*, comp. Anglosaxon *pærwið*, *cum eo*; *moreover*, formed from the Anglosaxon *māra* and the preposition *ofer*, comp. Anglosaxon *pærofer*, dialect *moreover than that*; also *inover* (WITHALS); *further*, Anglosaxon *furðor*, *ulterius*, Old-English *forther*, *further*, and *furthermore* (Bible) and others may likewise be regarded as substitutes for conjunctions. In the comparative sense stands *even*, Anglosaxon *ēfne*, *aeque*, *plane*, *ecce*, Old-English *even*. — Also *now*, *now*, Anglosaxon *nu* or *nū*, Old-English *now*, may prolong the discourse connectingly and subsumingly. The numeral adverbs *first*, *firstly*, *secondly* &c., *lastly*, and *finally* corresponding with this in meaning, may likewise be regarded as connecting particles, although adverbs, strictly taken, prolong the discourse *asyndetically* and may therefore mostly take *and* before them.

With a reciprocal relation of sentences or members of a sentence *and* often appears along with other particles; thus, in *both . . and*, where *both* comprehends both members, although not always standing in a direct relation with them, and which appear united by *and*. The manner of expression is old. Anglosaxon: *Bā twā Adam and Eva* (Gen. 26, 35.). Old-English *Bothe pees and werre*, *Blisse and bale bothe I seigh* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 222.). *Bothe to kith and to kyn* (268.). Compare Middle-Highdutch *beidiu, unde* (BENECKE). The members are joined by *also* instead of by *and* (SMART). The comprehension of the members is also effected by *at once* (simul), to which *and* is given as their union. It is otherwise with *alike . . and*, which exactly answers to the Latin *pariter atque*, Anglosaxon *gelice . . and*. The connections by *what . . what, what . . and* are also old. More completely *what . . and what*, properly, something . . something, that is partly . . partly, corresponding to the Anglosaxon *hvat*, *aliquid*. Old-English: But *what* for the yles, *what* for the see, and *what* for strong rowynge, fewe folk assayen for to passen that passage (MAUNDEV. p. 306.). In this firste host is the nombre of poeple 50 Cumaunez; *what* of hors, *what* of fote (p. 240.). *Wat* vor hunger, *wat* vor wo, men deyde (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 378.). They shall . . yeve hem such thar-

kinges *what* with kissing, *and* with talkinges (CHAUCER p. 255 Tyrwh.). — *not only* . . *but also*, seems to be assimilated to the Romance non-seulement . . mais encore, Latin non solum . . sed etiam; *but* answers to the Anglosaxon conjunction *bûtan*, nisi, therefore properly: not only. *As well* . . *as*, *as well as*, operates similarly, wherein properly a modal junction of sentences is contained. Anglosaxon presents *sva gelic svâ*, pariter ac. Old-English has early the *ealsvâ* and *rêla*, *rêl* based upon *als*, *as wel as*: *Als wel* on hors back . . *as* on fote (MAUNDEV. p. 249.). The wommen weren breech *as wel as* men (p. 250.).

Negative sentences are connected by the almost forgotten *ne*, Anglosaxon *nê*, neque (see p. 406.), now commonly by *nor*, for which *neither* also occurs. This *nor*, as well as *neither* is the Anglosaxon *nâhvâðer*, *nâðor*, *nâðer*, neque: Ye shall not eat of it, *neither* shall ye touch it (SMART). *Neither* . . *nor* commonly appear in reciprocal relation. In Old-English for *neither* the forms *nouther*, *nother* appear, yet also *neither*, also *neydur* (EGLAMOUR 883.), as still in northern dialects *nowther*, *nawther*, *nother*, *noither* and *nowdir*, which, as in the Anglosaxon *nâðor* with *nê*, often entered into reciprocal relation with *ne*: *Nouther* be day *ne* be nyght (MAUNDEV. p. 303.). *Nother* after his death *ne* in his lif (CHAUCER p. 76. II. Tyrwh.). That han *neither* konnyng *ne* kyn (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 220.). Yet *nother* is also early repeated, and in the second member often assumes the shorter form *nor*: For measure is a meane, *nother* to hy *nor* to lawe (SKELTON l. 231.). In the form *neither* it also appears repeated: *Neither* in this world, *neither* in the world to come (MATTH. 12, 32.), which is censured by moderns. There also appear *nor* . . *nor* in reciprocal relation, especially in poets: Ye knew *nor* me, *nor* monarchs, *nor* mankind (L. BYRON). Etymologically considered all these forms are equally justified.

- 2) Disjunctive conjunctions announce that only one of the limbs is valid. Here belongs *or*, Anglosaxon *âhvâðer*, *âvðer*, *âðor*, *âðer*, alteruter, Old-English *outher*, *other*, *or*, also *ather*, as still in Yorkshire, *aythere* (TOWNEL. MYST.), formed quite analogously to *nouther*, *nother*, *nor*, to which *else*, Anglosaxon *elles*, Old-English also *elle*, is given as an augmentative, which also operates disjunctively: Be quiet, *else* be gone. It commonly enters into reciprocal relation as *either* . . *or*, in both which forms the same word is to be recognized. Here too Old-English mostly preferred the shorter form in the second limb. Comp. Old-English: A tale *outher* tweye (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 167.). *Oper* he smot of þe arm, *or* þe hond, *or* þe heued (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 17.). *Outher* here *or* ellis where (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 280.). The use of *or* . . *or* is still poetical: To try whose right, *Or* thine *or* mine, is most in Helena (SHAKESPEARE Mids. N. Dr. 3, 2.). That were heroic *or* to win *or* fall (L. BYRON). The Anglosaxon *oððe*, *aut*, in reciprocal relation *oððe* . . *oððe*, was abandoned.
- 3) Adversative conjunctions oppose the connected limb, limitingly or negatively, to another. Here belong *but*, Anglosaxon *bûtan*, as a preposition sine, praeter, as a conjunction, nisi, which has

taken the place of the *ac* still widely diffused in Old-English (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER, PIERS PLOUGHM. &c.), *ak* (WRIGHT Politic. Songs p. 211.), *acke* (HALLIWELL s. v.), *oc* (BEVES OF HAMTOUN p. 61.), Anglosaxon *ac* (*oc*, *âc*, *ôc*, Gothic *ak*), *sed*, *at*, as the Anglosaxon *vitôdlice*, *sed*, *vero* and *sôðvhâdere*, *verumtamen* were abandoned. On the other hand *yet* (also combined with *and* and *but*), Anglosaxon *git*, *get*, *geot*, *gêta*, *nunc*, *adhuc*, which appeared augmentatively before comparatives, *git*, *sviððr*, *adhuc* melius, and some compounds came in, as, *nevertheless*, Old-English also *natheles*, developed from the Anglosaxon *næfre* and *nâ pý* (*pê*) *lâs*, *nunquam* (*minime*) *eo minus* and corresponding to the Old-French *neantmoins*; *notwithstanding*, from the Anglosaxon *viðstandan*, and assimilated to the Old-French *nonstant*; *however*, formed from the Anglosaxon *hvê*, *hvý*, *hû*, the instrumental of *hvât* and *æfre*, properly an elliptical sentence, as it appears complete in *howbeit* (formerly abbreviated as *howbe*). The hybrids *meantime*, *meanwhile*, from the Old-French *meien* and the Anglosaxon *tîma* and *hvil* may also be used adversatively. Compare the French *cependant*.

- 4) Causal conjunctions are those which indicate that the annexed sentence contains the cause or the consequence of another.

The preposition *for* used to combine sentences serves to denote the cause; essentially it annexes a subordinate sentence, which however, sometimes receives a freer position and seems to pass into a principal sentence. We may compare it with the French *car*, likewise originally annexing the subordinate sentence. Old-English often denoted the sentence introduced by *for*, as a subordinate sentence, by the collocation of the words: *pe Picars were wroth eke . . For he myd such vnkyn dede heore felawes slow* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 110.).

A conclusion is mostly annexed by primitive pronominal adverbs, as *hence*, *therefore* and *thereupon*, both which seem, both in composition and application, unknown to Anglosaxon (also *thereon*, Anglosaxon *pæron*, in *eo*), whereas the now obsolete *forthy* = *therefore*, in Anglosaxon *for pý*, *igitur*, *ea causa*, Old-English *for thi*, *forthy*, undertook the same function, although, in spite of its originally demonstrative character, it penetrated into the subordinate sentence in Anglosaxon with the meaning *quia*. Old-English also used *forthan*, Anglosaxon *for þam*, *propter ea*, *forþan*, *forþon*, *igitur*. Further, Modern-English employs also the adverb *then*, Anglosaxon *ponne*, *penne*, also substituted for *ergo*, *igitur*, and *so*, Anglosaxon *sua*, *sic*, *ita*, which also occurs combined with *then* (*so then*), although it frequently, like the Old-French *si*, serves only to lead on the discourse with more emphatic reference to what precedes. Adverbs like *accordingly* &c. are properly to be passed over here.

- b) Subordinating Conjunctions:

They serve to connect the substantive sentence with the adverbial sentence, whereas in the adjective sentence the relative pronouns at the same time take the function of subordinate conjunctions.

- 1) To connect the substantive sentence with its (absolute or relative) principal sentence the conjunction *that*, *pāt*, *quod*, *ut*, primarily serves. But this conjunction is in English, in the most comprehensive sense, the conjunction of the subordinate sentence generally, so that it was once attached to almost all conjunctions, as it still is or may be subjoined to some, a phenomenon which will be discussed in the Syntax, therefore is not considered here.

Negative sentences of this class are also introduced by *lest*, *quin*, *quominus*, Anglosaxon *lāst*, *minime*, Old-English *leat*, *leste*, especially after verbs of apprehension. Anglosaxon used *pē lās*, and *pē lās pe* for *quo minus*, *ne*, wherein the appended *pe* is not to be regarded as the cause of the *t*. The *t* might be an inorganic letter, but it seems more natural to derive it from the form of the adverbial superlative, which, after the abandonment of the *pē*, *eo*, *quo*, like the Latin *minime*, was adapted to represent the negation *ne*. Thus too *but* (see above) is employed, particularly after the notion of doubt.

In indirect questions, which belong here, stands *if*, Anglosaxon *gif*, *si*, not *num*, like the Old-Highdutch *ibu*, Old-English *ȝif*, *ȝef*, *ȝife*, *if* &c., for which also *whether*, which was in use in Anglosaxon, *hvāðer*, *utrum*, *an*, still sometimes occurs: People, who came to learn *whether* the bad news was true (MACAULAY); although commonly *whether* . . . or, is used in double question. In the direct question the Anglosaxon employed *crist pu*, for *num*, which has been abandoned in English. *Whether* appears moreover sometimes in the compressed form *wher*: *Wher* thou beest or no (SHAKESPEARE Temp. 5, 1.); *wher*.

With the lower people the primitive interrogative particle *how*, also in the combination *as how*, is sometimes substituted for the particle of the substantive sentence *that*, with which we may compare the French *comme*, *comme quoi*.

- 2) The adverbial sentence, which contains adverbial determinations of the predicate of the principal sentence in the form of a subordinate sentence, is divided into several sorts.
 - a) It serves to determine place. Sentences of this sort are annexed by relative adverbs of place.
 - β) It contains a determination of time.

Sentences which specify the When? in general as a space of time, or point of time of an activity, are introduced by *when*, Anglosaxon *hvenne*, *hvanne*, *hvonne*, *quando*, Old-English *whanne*, *whan*, *wan*, which formerly also appeared in the combination *whenas* (MILTON), and generalized, by *whenever*, *whosoever* &c. The Anglosaxon *ponne*, *penne*, *quando*, was given up; on the other hand the Anglosaxon *pā*, *pā pe*, *quando*, *quum* survived in the Old-English *tho*, *tha*: *po* pis folk was on lond, forþ into Kent hit drow (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER l. 111.). *Sori*ch am, *quop* Vortiger *po* he herde *pis* (p. 113.). *pis* was *po* in Engolond Britones were (p. 2). The properly modal *as*, Anglosaxon *ealsvā*, Old-English *als*, *as*, is also substituted for the temporal conjunction.

To denote duration *while*, *whilst*, from the Anglosaxon *hvil*, *hville*, *tempus. serve*, whence *pā hvil* and *pā hvil* *pe*, *quam diu*, for which in Old-English *whils*, *whiles* was also early in use: *Whils* that the peple of Israel passeden the see (MAUNDEV. p. 85.). *Whiles* (as long as) I am on your side (SKELTON l. 37.), in which I take the *s* to be a plural (comp. Anglosaxon *hvilum*, *hvilon*, dat. plur. aliquando). The form, connecting the later *whilst* also occurs in Modern-English, for instance, often in Shakspeare: It so falls out, That what we have we prize not to the worth, *whiles* we enjoy it (Much Ado etc.). And here you sty me In this hard rock, *whiles* yon do keep from me The rest o'th'island (Temp.). *While* moreover formerly served instead of *until*, as even now in Yorkshire. See Craven Dialect. 2. p. 254. Modal forms serve to determine the limits more particularly, as *as long as*, Anglosaxon *sva lange svā &c.*

Coincidence in a point of time is expressed by an originally modal joint of a sentence: *as soon as*, Anglosaxon *sona sva*, *sona*, *pās pe*, *statim exquo*. Old-English as *son* *as*, at the same time answering to the Old-French *si tost comme*, alongside whereof a comparative joint *no sooner . . than* occurs, Comp. French *pas plus tôt que*.

Extension of an activity from a limiting point is denoted by *since*, Anglosaxon *siðpan &c.*, as a conjunction *ex quo*, *postquam* (see p. 410.); duration up to a point of time by *till*, Anglosaxon *til*, *donec* (Chron. Sax. 1140.), and the compound *until*, see p. 409., whereas the Anglosaxon *ôð* along with *ôð pe*, *ôð pāt*, *donec* also used as a conjunction, was abandoned.

If the activity which precedes that of the principal sentence is denoted by the subordinate sentence, the latter is introduced by *after*, Anglosaxon *āfter pam pe*, but which stands also for *quemadmodum* (see the preposition *after*, p. 410.). If the succeeding activity is expressed in the subordinate sentence, it is preceded by *ere*, Anglosaxon *ær pe*, *ær pam pe*, *ær pon pe*, *priusquam*; Old-English *er*, *ere*, or. *Or* for *ere* also occurs in Modern-English of early times: I . . return *Or* e'er your pulse twice beat (SHAKSPEARE Temp.), as still in northern dialects. Instead of *ere*, *before* also appears. Even Old-English used the preposition *beforne*, *beforn*, *before* (that) in this case, but commonly gave in addition *that*, but also sometimes *or*: *Befere* or *thei resceyve hem* (MAUNDEV. p. 83.).

- γ) Further, the adverbial sentence serves as the expression of determinations of causality, and denotes the cause or the consequence of the activity predicated in the principal sentence.
- 1) The causal sentence in the narrower sense, which specifies the causal fact, is introduced by *for*, Anglosaxon *for pam*, *for pam pe*, *quia*. Old-English *for* (that) and *forthy*. Anglosaxon *for pŷ*, *for pŷ pe*, *quia* (see p. 420.), along with which also *in that*, and the mere *that*, *quod*, occur in the causal sentence. The particle of time *since*, obsolete *sith*, *postquam*, has also been employed from of old, to which, however, as to the French *tandis que*, an adversative relation is frequently given.

Old-English: Why menestow thi mood for a mote in thi brotheres eighe *Sithen* a beam in thyn owene Ablyndeth thiselwe (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 189.). Alas! that a cristene creature Shal be unkynde til another *Syn* Jewes . . Eyther of hem helpeth other (p. 164.). The modal *as*, and therewith *whereas* likewise stands with an adversative relation.

- 2) The conditional sentence, which contains a supposition or assumed cause, is introduced by *if* (see p. 421.). Formerly the conjunction *and*, *an* was widely diffused in Old-English and Old-Scottish instead of *if*, which is nothing else than *and*, and hence is frequently expressed in Old-English by &c. It answers to the Middle-Highdutch *unde* in conditional and concessive sentences. See Benecke's Dictionary p. 186. Compare Old-English: And myghte kisse the kyng for cosyn *And* she wolde (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 36.). The pecok, *and* men pursue hym, May nocht flee heighe (p. 242.). But *and* sche have children with him, thei leten hire lyve (MAUNDEV. p. 171.). *An* frequently stands for *and* in Rob. of Gloucester. *And* and *an* are not only in extensive use in dialects with the common people, especially in Lancashire and Westmoreland, but are also to be met with in Modern-English literature: Why, *an* I were &c. (BEN JONSON). We steal by line and level *and't* like your grace (SHAKESPEARE Temp.). *An* a may catch your hide and you alone (King J. 2, 1.). Frequently *an* is combined with *if*: I pray thee, Launce, *an if* thou seest my boy, Bid him make haste (Two Gentlem.). Let me say no, my liege, *an if* you please (Love's L. L.). Hence the formula: without *ifs* or *ands*. Shakspeare also transfers *an* to the indirect interrogative sentence: To spy *an* I can hear my Thisby's face (Mids. N. Dr. 5, 1.).

The conditioning sentence is also introduced by *so* (so that), mostly however by way of limitation, like *dummodo*; the Anglosaxon *sva* is not found thus employed, Old-English has *so*, *by so*: Roughte ye nevere Where my body where buried *By so* ye hadde my silver (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 206.). Periphrastic forms have been fashioned upon the French, as, *provided that*, *providing*, French *pourvu que*; *in case that*, French *en cas que*; *on condition that*, French *à condition que*, and others.

Negative sentences are introduced by *unless*; it is foreign to Anglosaxon and seems fashioned upon the Old-French *a moins que* . . *ne*, for which formerly *lesse than* (HALLIWELL s. v.) occurred. The negation *un* perhaps arose from the endeavour to indicate the nature of the dependent sentence at the outset. Sometimes we find *unless* shortened into *'less* (MILTON). The Anglosaxon *bûtan*, *bûtan pāt*, *nisi*, still appears in *but*, *but that*. The particle *without*, Anglosaxon *viûtan*, Old-English *withouten*, *without*, is also substituted for *unless*, especially in dialects. Compare Old-English: I shall breake your palettes *Wythout* ye now cease (SKELTON I. 106.), for which also the Romance *save that* and *except* appear.

In the contraction of a modal sentence with a conditional

sentence *as if*, *as though* (see below) or even *as* alone, with suppression of the second particle, appear.

- 3) The concessive sentence is introduced by *though*, abbreviated *tho'* and amplified *although*. Anglosaxon *peáh* *pe*, *peáh*, *quamvis* [the pronominal *peáh* is properly of demonstrative nature: *tamen*], Old-English *thau* (DAME SIRIZ), *theȝ* (LIFE OF TH. BEKET p. 8.), *theigh* (PIERS PLOUGHM.), *thagh* (HALLIWELL s. v.), *thowe* (EGLAMOUR 592.), *thofe*, still dialectically *thof* in the North of England (PERCEVAL 81.), *though*, *thogh* &c. Old-Scottish *thoch*, *thocht*. The strengthening *al*, comp. Middle-Highdutch *al*, occurs also alone in Old-English with this meaning as *al*, *all* (CHAUCER); frequently it was placed with other particles, as with *though*, comp. *alle thow* (TORRENT OF PORTUGAL p. 10.). *gif*, *if*: *alleȝif* (HALLIWELL s. v.), *alle if* (ID. v. *alle-hool*), in Skelton *algife* (l. 13.). Thus it early appeared in the formula *albeit* (that) (CHAUCER), which appears in the dependent sentence even in Modern-English, as well as in *albe that* (LYDGATE) and *all be though* (SKINNER). *Notwithstanding*, fashioned upon the Romance, also occurs in these sentences. Generalizing particles, as *however*, *whenever*, *wherever* &c., as also the disjunctives *whether . . or*, may also introduce concessive sentences.
- 4) In the consecutive sentence, which expresses the consequence of the activity, stands *that*; Anglosaxon *pāt*, *ut*, to which a correlative like *so*, Anglosaxon *svā pāt*, *adeo ut*, or *such*, Anglosaxon *svelic*, *svilc*, *svylc*, *talis*, is attached, which the correlative *as* also follows.
- 5) The final sentence, which represents the purpose of the activity of the principal sentence, likewise introduced by *that*, Anglosaxon *pāt*, *ut*, for which also *in order that* (W. SCOTT) occurs; the negative final sentence is also introduced by *lest*, Anglosaxon *pē lās* *pe*, *quominus*. See above. In Old-English the variously employed *for*, used with the infinitive to express the purpose, is also referred hither: *Briddes . . Hidden and hileden Hir egges . . For men sholde hem noght fynde* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 223.)
- 3) The modal sentence, also called the comparative sentence, denotes the sort and manner of the activity of the principal sentence qualitatively and even quantitatively. The particles occurring here are *as*, the shortened *also*: Anglosaxon *ealsvā* Old-English *also*, *als*, *as*, often with correlatives, as *as*, *so*, *such*. The forms *als*, *as* long run alongside of each other: *As foule as thei ben, als evele thei ben* (MAUNDEV. p. 153.). *Als longe as here vitaylles lasten, thei may abide there* (p. 130.). That these sentences may also be temporal sentences in meaning, is observed above. *Like*, Anglosaxon *gelice*, *similiter*, may also, under certain circumstances, be substituted for *as*. The dependent sentence is annexed to a comparative correlative by *than*, Anglosaxon *ponne*, *penne*, *quam*.

The further development of dependent sentences and the seeming interchange of particles, as well as periphrastic forms belonging to this head, have to be stated in the Syntax.

4) The Interjection.

The Interjection, or the sound of emotion, is the expression of an emotion, of an affection, or even of desire, which, however, expresses no notionally determinate image, and, not being interwoven with the context of the sentence, stands outside of it. Interjections are partly words by themselves notionless, partly notional words whose determinate meaning has evaporated, so that they become more or less the expression of the subjective frame of mind or the conventional term for acts of the will. Ellipses whose complements are neither clearly present to the imagination nor can be pointed out in the history of the language also belong here.

Owing to the indefinite character of sounds becoming the involuntary expressions of sensations a strict division of interjections is perhaps not possible, many of them, although often produced with a different strength or pitch of sound, often answering to different moods of the mind.

a) To express pain the ambiguous *ah* and *o, oh*, variously serve, which seem to be absent in Anglosaxon, whereas in Old-French *a! ah! ahi! o! oh! ohi!* are familiar emotional words.

Ah! is frequently the expression of pain and complaint, especially in the combination *ah me!* (MILTON, LONGFELLOW &c.) for which also *ay! ay me!* occurs, and with which we may compare the Old-French *haemi! hemi! aymi!* and the Old-Highdutch *ah mih!* (NOTK. Ps. 119, 5.), Middle-Highdutch *ach mich!* (JULIANA p. m. 9.). The Old-English has *a!*: *A! Lorde, he saide, fulle wo is me!* (MS. in HALLIWELL s. v., comp. CHAUCER p. 9. Tyrwh.). Besides *ah* naturally serves as the expression of unkind feelings, as to denote indignation and contempt, but also of surprise and joy: *Ah!* is n't this the Captain coming? (SHERIDAN). *Ah!* my dear friend! Egad! we were just speaking of your tragedy (ID.). *Ah!* Mr. Delaval, I am heartily glad to see you in England (TH. HOLCROFT). *Ah!* how the streamlet laughs and sings! (LONGFELLOW) as also *ay!* becomes the expression of joyful astonishment: *Ay!* this is freedom! (BRYANT). Comp. Old-English: *A! swete sire! I seide tho* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 355.).

Still more ambiguous is *o! oh!* which frequently expresses pain and affliction, and moreover indignation and astonishment: *O, woe the day!* (SHAKSP. Temp.). *Oh, horror!* shall I be the cause of murder (TH. HOLCROFT). *O, the hideous fellow!* (G. COLMAN). *Oh!* are you there, gentleman? (G. FARQUHAR); but readily adapts itself to every frame of the mind: *Oh!* that I was safe at Clod Hall! (SHERIDAN). *Oh!* the dear Colonel! (J. VANBRUGH). *O joy! O joy!* (LONGFELLOW); and attaches itself in a serious and even jocose address to the vocative: I believe, *O God*, what herein I have read (LONGFELLOW). *Hasten! hasten! o ye spirits* (ID.). *O, sweet angel!* (ID.). *O doctor!* that letter's worth a million (FARQUHAR). This, *O brave physician!* this is thy great Paligenesis! (LONGFELLOW); thus even in Old-English. *O! oh!* also becomes the expression of consideration or of delay in answering: You seemed upon an interesting subject. — „*Oh!* an affair of gal-

lantry" (S. FOOTE). Hence the frequent *o*, yes! *o*, no, *oh*, no! as also *ah*, yes! *ah*, no occurs (frequently in Longfellow). Formerly *ou*, *ow* were found with painful and joyful motion: *Ou*, he seide, þe grete despit (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 18.) — *Ow!* lord, þe noble folk (p. 56.).

The obsolete *welaway!* is genuinely Anglosaxon, Anglosaxon *vā lâ vā*, *vālavā*, *proh dolor!* properly *miseria*, *ecce*, *miseria!* Old-English *walaway*, *weyloway* (PIERS PLOUGHM.), *welwo* (TOWNEL. MYST.), *welawaye* (LYDGATE), *well away* (SKELTON), which has been deformed into *well-a-day* (even in Shakspeare), with which we may compare *woe the day!* wherein, as in *woe* is *me!* &c. the same Anglosaxon *vā* appears as an original substantive.

The Romance *alas!* Old-French *hailas*, *halas*, *alas*, Modern-French *hélas*, properly *ah*, wretched! was early introduced along with *woe* and *walaway*: He sayd *Alas!* and *woe ys me!* (PERCY Rel. p. 4. II.). Full oft he said *alas* and *walaway!* (CHAUCER). *Alas*, *alas* and *welwo!* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 4.), with which the notion of time is often combined: *alas the day!* *alas the while!* as even in the most ancient times: *Alas! pilke stonde* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 56.). The expression is strengthened by *out*: *out alas!* (SHAKSP.), wherein *out* is the expression of repugnance. Even this form is Old-English: For the whiche his ennys cried *Owte* and *alas!* (Ms. in HALLIWELL v. out). Nowe, *out alas!* the tanner he cryde, That ever I saw this daye! (PERCY Rel. p. 111. II.).

A popular deformation of *alas* is *alack!* from which *alack-a-day!* *lackaday!* and jocosely *lackadaisy!* as in the Middle-Highdutch *achlâch!* (BENECKE Wb.) to which perhaps *good lack!* does not belong, since here *lack*, otherwise *lawk*, seems deformed from *lord*. *lear* is elliptical. Comp.: *Dear, dear!* What will this come to! (HOLCROFT); which likewise seems to be an invocation to God, although *o dear me!* as well as *ah me!* *oh me!* springs from it.

The expression of affliction and longing is also *heighho!* *Heigho!* I have no comfort (ARTH. MURPHY). *Heighho!* I wish Victorian would come (LONGFELLOW). I may sit in a corner, and cry *heigh ho!* for a husband (SHAKSP. Much Ado &c.). In dialects it is *heigh!* often a calling to stop, as *heigho!* also occurs: *Heigho!* la ha, ha! (HOLCROFT).

The outburst of emotion with bodily pain is rendered by *ugh!* *ouch!* to which perhaps the Old-English verb *uggen*, to feel a repugnance to, to be terrified, belongs.

- b) Joyful emotions are expressed, besides by the above cited *ah!* and *o!* *oh!*, especially by *hey!* comp. Middle-Highdutch *hei!* (although this does not denote joy merely): *Hey!* boys! thus we soldiers live, drink, sing, dance, play (FARQUHAR). Converting all your sounds of woe into *Hey*, *nonny*, *nonny* (SHAKSP. Much Ado &c.); likewise *heyday* (which also appears as a substantive)! Freedom! *hey-day!* *hey-day!* freedom! freedom! *hey-day!* freedom! (SHAKSP. Temp.). Both certainly serve to express surprise and indecision: *Hey day!* here's a cat! (SHERIDAN). What is your intention in regard to him? „*Hey!* I can't tell you (S. FOOTE).

- The loud shouts of rejoicing are *hurrah!* and *huzza!* *Huzza* for the queen! (FARQUHAR), also *hilloho!* (DICKENS). Comp. below *f*.
- c) Surprise, with which vexation, indignation or doubt are partly mixed, is intimated by *eh!* *ha!* or *hah!*. *Eh!* Ods life! Mr. Fag! (SHERIDAN). *Eh!* what the plague! (ID.). *Eh!* why don't you move? (GOLDSMITH). *Eh!* where's Rouse? Rouse, Rouse! 'Sflesh! where's Rouse gone? (FARQUHAR). The Old-English used *ey!*: *Ey*, benedicite, What eileth you? (CHAUCER). *Ey* maister, welcome be ye! (ID.). — *Ha*, my dear Sneer, I am vastly glad to see you (SHERIDAN). *Ha!* what do I see? Miss Neville, by all that's happy! (GOLDSMITH). Both however become also the expression of the expectation of an answer, which is often supposed: Is he rich? *eh?* (SHERIDAN). There must be something that you think might be mended, *eh?* (ID.). Harkye, hast thou never a pretty acquaintance now . . . *ha?* (MRS. CENTLIVRE). *Oh, ho!* also serves as the expression of astonishment: *Oh, ho!* Mrs. Amlet! What brings you so soon to us again, Mrs. Amlet? (J. VANBRUGH). *How! what!* are also peculiar to the question of surprise: *Eh! how! what!* Captain, did you write the letter then? (SHERIDAN); so too in combination with other exclamation: *how (what)* the devil! and the like. *Lo*, *la* also becomes the term for astonishment, Anglosaxon *lā*, ecce, en, Old-English often *la*, which like look! behold! see! is ambiguous: When they were . . . removing the rubbish, *lo!* they found fragments of the marble tomb of Robert Bruce (W. SCOTT). The old *la* is even in Shakspeare: Ay, or else I would I might be hanged, *la!* (Merry Wiv. 1, 1.); so too Fielding, Holcroft &c., where *la!* is frequently to be taken in the sense of refusal. *Aha!* expresses often satisfied expectancy: *Aha!* I see you well (W. SCOTT); and triumphant expectation and contempt. Comp. Ps. 35. *A ha!* also occurs in Old-English, for instance, in Chaucer, especially as an expression of reflection and satisfied expectancy.
- d) Expressions of contempt, abomination and indignant rejection are *fy!* or *fie!* Old-French *fi*, Old-English *fy*, *fie*, *fye*, answering to the Latin *phy* (TERENT.), Highdutch *pfui!* often combined with *on*, *upon* with reference to the object of the abomination, even in Old-English: *Fie! fie!* I blush to recollect my weakness (WALPOLE). *Fie* on thee! (SHAKSP. Two Gentl.). Old-English: *Fy* on faitours (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 308.). *Fie* upon a lord that wol have no mercie (CHAUCER p. 14. l. Tyrwh.). The same is denoted by *foh!* *fugh!* *faugh!* with an obscured vowel, from which *fudge!* with which we turn off lying babblers, is perhaps to be separated. In dialects *fudge* denotes nonsense, and perhaps belongs to the stem *fagan*, whence Anglosaxon *fēgan*, *pangere*, *fāgan*, *ornare*, comp. Old-Highdutch *fuogjan*. With a change of vowel *poh!* *pooh!* (MRS. CENTLIVRE) *pugh!* are used in the same sense, along with which *pho!* occurs. In the ancients *baw!* *Baw* for bokes (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 210.). *Pish!* *psha!* *pshaw!* are equal to expressions of contempt, with which *twish!* HALLIWELL s. v.) is associated, which is equivalent to *tush!* Old-English *tusche!* *tushe!* in general commanding silence. Compare Danish *tys!* (from *tyss*, to be silent). *Tut!* is also thus used, as *buz* (SHAKSP.), which is

perhaps the substantive "Twattle". *Whew!* likewise occurs: *Whew!* away with inscriptions (Br. OTTER). Indignant dismissal and contempt is denoted by many parts of speech used elliptically, as, *out!*: *Out* dog! *out*, cur! thou driv'st me past the bounds Of maiden's patience (SHAKSP. Mids. N. Dr.); particularly in the combination *out on (upon)!* I know not thy mistress: *out on* thy mistress! (SHAKSP. Com. of Err.). *Out upon* him, the lazy loon! (LONG-FELLOW). Other expressions make their notional value come out still clearer, as *hence! away!* in Rob. of Gloucester *away!* (I. 289.), the Romance *avaunt!* Old-French *avant* (Latin *ab-ante*): Rogues *hence! avaunt!* (SHAKSP. Merry Wiv.) *aroynt!* (aroint, SHAKSP.), which is compared with the Old-English *roin* = scab, *begone!* in the same sense; *for shame!* &c. Finally we use the substantive *fidde-faddle* (*fid-fad*), by which we denote empty twattle: "You tell me marriage is a serious thing." — Why is it not? — "*Fiddle-faddle!* I know what it is: 'tis not the first time I have been married" (TH. SOUTHERN).

- e) In assertions, which may accompany affections of every kind, the popular language is particularly rich. They mostly contain primitive notional words thrust forth elliptically, partly undeformed or but little shortened, as, *indeed! in faith! i' faith! faith! perdy!* French *par Dieu! parde!* (CHAUCER), *perde!* (SKELTON), partly as mutilations of the name of God, Jesus Christ or the Virgin, wherein roughness is strangely mingled with the dread of the abuse of the divine name. Thus *God* is transformed into *Gad, Cod, Cot, Cut, Cog, Cock, Od, Odd* and *Ad*, with which substantives are combined, denoting qualities of God or the corporeality of Jesus Christ, but also all sorts of forms of words, either in themselves or in their combination devoid of meaning. Compare *Egad! Ecod! Cod's life!* also *Cod's my life! Od's my life! Ads my life!* (FARQUHAR) along with *God's my life! Cut's splatter and nails! Cog's bones! Cock's soul! Odsheart! Od's heartlings! Odd'sblood and hounds!* (mutilated from wounds), *Odd's bobs! Odd's pittikins!* (from pity), *Odd's dickens!* (= devil), *Odsfish!* &c., also *Gadso! Odso!* perhaps an abbreviation of the likewise mutilated *Odzooks!* (see below). Mutilations of this sort are old. Chaucer has *Cokes bones!* and in the Scottish Lindsay we find *be Coks passion, hart blude, bones, toes, wounds, mother* &c. *God* is also transformed into *Gar*, hence dialectically *begorz! begosh* commonly pronounced, along with *begammers!* Another mutilation is the rejection of the stem before the genitive termination, whereby out of *God's* we have '*s: 'Sdeath! 'Slife! 'Slid!* (SHAKSP. Merry Wiv.); '*Sblood!* perhaps the same '*Sbud!* to which also *Zounds!* (= God's wounds) belongs, which becomes '*ounds! ouns! oons!* and '*wauns!* of which *Pounze!* is a new mutilation. I do not venture to decide whether the exclamation: *Zooks! Zookers! Zook-dikers!* may have arisen from '*Shooks* (from the Anglosaxon *hōc*, *uncus*, or *hōh*, *hōc*, *irrisio*, comp. Old-English *hoket*). The name of the Lord: *Lord!* is also used as an exclamation in the mutilated forms *Lor! Lud!* and also *Lauck!* The name of the Virgin appears in *Marry!* for *by Mary!* as in the term *Lady!* Comp. *Bir-lady!* (by our Lady), *Beleddy!* in northern dialects, whence the

mutilations of the diminutive: *By'r lakin!* (SHAKSP.) (By our lakin! SKELTON), and in the North of England *Beleakins!* The asseverations *By Jings!* *Jinkers!* are referred by Fiedler to the name Jesus; by others to *St. Gingoulph*, as to which we may mention that in the North of England *By Jen!* refers to John. The devil is not only invoked as *Devil!* but also as *Deuce!* *dyce!* in Skelton, and the *Dickens!* Whether *O, gemini!* which also becomes asseverative (SHERIDAN Rivals) and as *Gemminy!* is an expression of surprise in various dialects, answers to the Highdutch *Oh Jemine!* Slav. *jojmene!* I leave undecided.

- f) Invocations and Calls with various intentions are numerous. With *holloa!* *hollo!* *holla!* we call, especially from a distance, compare French *holà!* also occur here *hola!* *ola!*: *Hola!* ancient *Baltasar.* — „Here I am“ (LONGFELLOW). *Ola,* good man! — „*Ola!*“ (ID.); likewise with *ho!* *hoa!* *Martina!* *ho!* *Martina!* (LONGFELLOW). *Ho!* seneschal, another cup! (ID.); strengthened: *What ho!* *Yo ho!* and with *hoy!* *hey!*: *Hey!* *Trapanti!* (COLLY CIBBER) and *Hip!* (SMART); with less exertion and partly privately by *hem!* and *hist!*: *Hem!* *hem!* *Madam — hem!* (SHERIDAN Rivals). *Hist!* *hist!* *Donna Violanta* (CENTLIVRE). *Hist!* *Martina!* One word with you (LONGFELLOW).

The ancient cry for help *harow!* Old-French *haro*, in Spenser has been abandoned. Modern-English has *help!* *hoa!* The encouraging summons is *well then!* (= French *allons!*); the sailors shout: *Ohoi!* and *yo heave ho!*: *Cheerly,* my hearties! *Yo heave ho!* (LONGFELLOW); shout of approval: *bravo!* *well you!* also *well done you!*

Attention is awakened by verbal forms, as *hark!* *look!* *see!* and the like, Old-English *we,* *wemo,* *wemay* (TOWNEL. MYST.). The sheriff or cries commands silence before a proclamation by the Old-French imperative *oyes!* (*oyez*). In common life *mum!* *hist!* *whist!* *hush!* *tut!* *tush!* as well as the substantives *silence!* *peace!* are used, which partly express reproach and a monition to be attentive. With *bo!* we frighten men. Children are lulled to sleep by *lullay,* *lullaby* and the like. Compare: With *lullay,* *lullay,* lyke a childe Thou slepyst (SKELTON I. 22.), with which arbitrary variations are associated. A halt at sea is commanded by *avast!* = stop!

The English driver has encouraged horses from olden times by *hau,* Old-English *heit* (even in Chaucer: *Heit,* *scot,* *heit brok!* *heit now!*), Old-French *hait.* He turns them to the left by the cry *hait-wo!* as well as by *camether,* Old-English *come heder* (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 9, of ploughing); to the right by *ree!* and *gee!* He brings them to a stand by *joss!* Old-English *jossa!* (CHAUCER) and *stank!* The cattle driver's cry is *prou!* that of the goose driver: *shough!* (= *shōō*). The dog is set on by *hey!* *Hey,* Mountain, *hey!* (SHAKSP. Temp.); Old-English: *Hey!* *dogge,* *hey!* (SKELTON I. 101.); as also enticed: *Hay,* *chysshe,* *come hyder* (p. 261.). He is sent home by *hout:* *Hout,* *hout,* to kennel, sirrah, go (OTWAY). Swine are enticed by *tig!* in several counties.

Soho! is an old exclamation, Old-English *sohowe,* sometimes spelt

sohow even now, which is customary as a term of the chase upon finding the hare (PROMPT. PARVUL.), as the cry *whoo* resounds at the death of the beast in *whoo-up!* and many more.

- g) Consideration and doubt are expressed by *hum!* *humph!* also *um!* to which is added *hem!* (COLLEY CIBBER), also as the expression of embarrassment. The frequently employed, originally interrogative *why!* Anglosaxon *hvȳ*, *quomodo*, *cur?* may also be regarded as an expression of reflection and a decision following upon it: And you bore all with patience, I make no doubt? — „*Why*, yes, though I made some occasional attempts at *felo de se*“ (SHERIDAN). Shall I order a private room, sir? — „*Why*, no, Sam“ (DICKENS). If I don't lie myself out of it again, *why*, then I will be content to be crucified (S. FOOTE); although *why* may also denote the delay of surprise: *Why*, I never heard this of him (ID.).
- h) There is a series of imitations of noises and sounds, not indeed so much expressions of subjective emotion as repetitions of outward affections of sense, but which often denote the former. Thus *whew!* is the term for a rushing, quick movement: *Whew!* how they tore along! (of horses) (DICKENS), Old-English with *weheel!* (CHAUCER). *Whip*, has been taken from the whip and its effect (Angl. *hveop*, *flagellum*), which also denotes the suddenness of an event: And *whip!* we were all off at an hour's warning (SHERIDAN). About an hour ago she was for scaling walls to come at me, and this minute — *whip*, she's going to marry the stranger (COLLEY CIBBER). *flac! flac!* serves for the report of a whip. — *Pop!* is used for suddenness (whence the verb to pop). *Dash!* stands near to *pop* (compare to dash), strengthened *slap dash!* = at once. *Rap!* is the imitation of the sound or noise in striking: *Rap!* he gives me a stroke on the head with his cane (SHERIDAN RIVALS). Similarly *pat!* is also used of clapping appearance: To hear her come *pat*, *pat*, *pat*, along in her slippers (COLLEY CIBBER). The report of a shot is expressed by *boh!* Lo, we fight. *Boh!* I kill him (SHERIDAN); the cracking and crackling. *bounce!* *Bounce!* from the fire, a coffin flew (GAY). Old-English: I herd gunnis rushe out at ones *Bowns*, *bowns*, *bowns* (SKELTON I. 386.). *Dub a dub* has denoted from of old the beat of a drum, as also *tantara!* *Dub a dub*, *Dub a dub*, thus strike their drums *Tantara, tantara*, the Englishman comes (PERCY Rel. p. 146. II.). Thus too the *tol de rol*, else used of humming, seems sometimes to stand: *Tol de rol, de rol* — halt! Stand to your arms (JAM. COBB.). Compare: Sing to *de rol*, and let her go (ID.). The fighting step and noise is imitated by *sa, sa, sa*: A duel's but a dance to him: he has been at *sa, sa, sa!* for you already (COLLEY CIBBER). Compare: There's no *tantara, sa, sa, sa*, or force Of man to man (TAYLOR).

The tolling of bells is denoted by *ding, dong!* (SHAKSPEARE Temp.), dialectically *ting-tang!* and *bim, bom!* as the beating of the clock is denoted by *ding: Ding, ding, ding, ding!* just four (DE-LAMOTTE). Other clapping and dashing is denoted by: *clash!* *clang!* *tik, tak!* and the like.

Singing to oneself is denoted by *tum, tum, tum* and *tum, dum,*

dum (COLLEY CIBBER), reading to oneself *um, um!* (ID.). Laughing is represented by *ha, ha, ha!* also *ha, he!* or *hee, hea!* and *tehee!* Old-English *We te he!* Compare: *We te he!* quoth Tib and lugh (PERCY Rel. p. 95. l.). And Annot . . laughs, *tehe, wehe!* (SKELTON I. 241.). Weeping is expressed by Colley Cibber with *uh!*

The language denotes a few voices of beasts by some agreement of sound, thus, dogs' barking by *bow, wow* (SHAKSP. Temp.), *bough, waugh, waugh, waugh!* (OTWAY); the bleating of sheep by *baa!* the cockerow by *cock-a-doodle-doo* (SHAKSP. Temp.), *cock! cock!* (CHAUCER); the note of rooks by *caw, caw: 'caw! caw!* the rooks are calling (LONGFELLOW); of the lark by *tirra, lirra* (SHAKSP. Wint. Tale 4, 2.); the whoop of the owl by *to-who, tu-whit, to-who* (ID. Love's L. L. 5, 2.) and others, although the different dialects make distinctions, and poets often follow their individual apprehensions.

- i) Finally, another class of words may here be mentioned, which arise from a play with the sounds, and partly in a picturesque manner make up for the image of the thing by the meaningless word. They mostly appear as notional words, and either represent the same verbal body twice rhymed with a difference of initial sound, or with a different accented vowel, without change of initial vowel, when a clear interchanges with an obscure vowel (especially *i* with *a*). In origin they lean partly on notional words, partly consist of meaningless syllables.

Here belong rhyming substantives: *handy-dandy; hocus-pocus* (from Ochus Bochus?); *hobby-doddy; hodge-podge* and *hotch-potch; hurly-burly; hugger-mugger; hurdy-gurdy; cagmag; kicksy-wicksey. Helter-skelter* are commonly adverbial; *higgledy-piggledy* (compare *higgler* subst.); *harum-scarum; harry-darry*, as an exclamation (OTWAY); *habnab* (HUDIBR.) = at random; *hoity-toity; hobnob*, challenge to drink (take or do not take).

Repetitions with an alternating clear and obscure vowel are frequent: *mizmaze* (from *maze*); *mish-mash; riff-raff; fidde faddle; fingle-fangle; flimflam; whimwham; tick-tack*, sometimes used for *tric-track; tittle-tattle; twittle-twattle; snip-snap* (SHAKSP.); *kit-cat*, epithet of a club (after the pictures hanging there) is said to come from the proper name Kit (Christopher) Cat; *knick-knack; gibble-gabble; chil-chat*, the same — *dingle-dangle* = carelessly pendent; *skimble-scamble* &c.

ding-dong; tip-top; sing-song; slipslop; ninny-nonny; criss-cross. — hip-hop.

see-saw; gew-gaw.

Many of these forms fluctuate between the interjection and the noun. They are mostly foreign to the more noble literature, familiar to common life, and denote particularly insignificant or blameable subjects, and are formations in which the popular fancy still roams at large and mocks etymology. Who would be able to point out the place in which the mixed stuff made of linen and wool was first named *linsey-woolsey*?

II. The formation of words.

A. Derivation.

The forming of words by derivation in the proper sense takes place by means of the addition of sounds, in themselves without meaning or obscured in regard to meaning, to the stem.

We may, however, also reckon as derivation that formation of words which is effected without the addition of sounds. It takes place in two manners; firstly, by a verbal stem, with one of the vowels of the strong verbs which change the vowel, either within the same class of words or passing into another class, receiving an altered signification; secondly, by one and the same verbal body or part of speech passing immediately into another class of words and adopting its inflection. Both sorts may be called improper derivation.

A middle step between derivation and composition is made by those words in which a syllable, in itself significant, appears so far insignificant, as it is extinct as a word used independently, as *-ald*, *-ard*, *-dom* &c.

1) Improper Derivation..

- a) The formation of words in connection with variation of sound, which is connected with the change of sound in strong verbs, (as to which the reduplicating classes of verbs are hardly considered, their change of vowel being mostly produced by reduplication,) is the foundation of families of words with a distinction of meaning. Proper derivation may be combined with the improper by means of a termination, when the latter at the same time expresses its effect, whereas a modification of the vowel has no influence upon the meaning. Compare Modern-Highdutch *Saenger*, Middle-Highdutch *singer*, from *singen*, *sang*.

This derivation concerns Germanic words only, and lies in the rear not only of the English, but partly even of the Anglosaxon tongue, many forms produced by a variation of sound referring to strong verbs which are no longer to be pointed out in Anglosaxon nor even in other Germanic idioms. In English these strong verbs are of course still more frequently absent. Compare *broad*, Anglosaxon *brâd*, Old-norse *breida*, *expandere*, to which an Anglosaxon *brîdan*, not to be pointed out, would correspond; *cram*, Anglosaxon the same, Middle-Highdutch *krimpfen*, alongside whereof an absent Anglosaxon *crimpan* must have stood.

By changes in the vowel, details whereof are given under Phonetics, the relations of the variations of the vowel have been frequently dimmed in English. We give here by way of example some series of forms of verbs and nouns varying the vowel, attached to different classes of strong verbs.

To the first class of Anglosaxon verbs with the vowels *i* (*eo*, *ē*); *a* (*ea*), *u*; *u* (*o*) (compare *vinnen* — *vann*, *vunnon* — *vunnen*)

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belong: *stunt*, Anglosaxon *styntan*, *hebetare*, from *stintan*, English *stint*. *bend*, *band*, *bond*, Anglosaxon *bendan*, Old-English *band*, Anglosaxon *bend*, from *bindan*, English *bind*. *wend*, Anglosaxon *vendan*, from *vindan*, English *wind*. *brand*, Anglosaxon *brand*, from *beornan*, *byrnan*, *brinnan*, English *burn*. *drink*, *drench*, Anglosaxon *drinc* and *drynce*; *drencan*, from *drincan*, English *drink*. *spring*, Anglosaxon the same, from *springan*, English *spring*. *string*, *strong*, Anglosaxon *string*; *strang* (strong), from an assumed Anglosaxon *stringan*, Latin *stringere*. *song*, Anglosaxon *sang* (song), from *singan*, English *sing*; *stench*, Anglosaxon *stenc*, also *stauc*; *stencan*, from *stinkan*, English *stink*. *ground*, Anglosaxon *grund*, from *grindan*, English *grind*. *foundling*, from the Anglosaxon *findan*, English *find*.

To the second class of Anglosaxon verbs with the vowels *i* (*eo*, *ē*); *a* (*ā*), *æ* (*ā*, *ē*); *u* (*o*) (comp. *bēran* — *bār*, *bæron* — *boren*) belong: *birth*, *bare*, *here*, a sort of barley in Scotland, Engl. *barley*; *bearn*, *bier* (barrow), Anglosaxon *beorð*; *bār*; *bere*; *bearn*; *bær*, from *bēran*, *beoran*, English *bear*. *tale*, Anglosaxon *talū*, from the assumed *tēlan*, whence *tellan* alone remains. *sale*, Old-English *sala*, with which only the verb *sellan* still agrees. *hollow*, Anglosaxon *hol*, from *hēlan*, *tegere*.

To the third class of Anglosaxon verbs with the vowels *i* (*eo*, *ē*); *ā* (*ea*), *æ* (*ed*); *i*, *ē*, (compare *biddan* — *bād*, *bædon* — *bēden*) the following are to reckoned: *bed*, Anglosaxon *bedd* from *biddan*, *humi prosterni*. *trode*, Anglosaxon *trōd*, from *trēdan*, English *tread*. *set*, Anglosaxon *settan*, *settle*, Anglosaxon *sitel*, *sētel*; *sunset*, Anglosaxon *siet*, *sēt*, *occasus*, from *sittan*, English *sit*. *lay*, Anglosaxon *lecgan*, from *licgan*, English *lie*. *speech*, Anglosaxon *spræc*, *spæc*, from *sprēcan*, English *speak*. *stick*, *stake*, *stock*, Anglosaxon *sticca*; *staca*; *stocc*, from Anglosaxon *stēcan*. Compare English *stick*.

To the fourth class of Anglosaxon verbs with the vowels *a*, *ea* (*e*); *ō*, *ô*; *a*, *ea* (*ā*) (compare *standan* — *stōd*, *stōdon* — *standen*) are attached: *step*. *staple*, Anglosaxon *stepē*; *steppan*; *stapul*, from *stapan*, *gradi*.*) *fare*, Anglosaxon *fār*, *far*, and *faru*, *iter*, from *faran*, English *fare*. *grave*, Anglosaxon *grāf*, from *grafan*, English *grave* and the like.

To the fifth class of Anglosaxon verbs with the vowels *i*; *ā*, *ī*; *i* (compare *bītan* — *bāt*, *bīton* — *biten*) are attached: *drive*. *drove*, Anglosaxon *drāf*, from *drīfan*, English *drive*. *shrove*, *shrift*, Anglosaxon *scrift*, from *scrīfan*, English *shrive*. *bit*, *bite*, *bait*, *bitter*, Anglosaxon *bit*; *bīte*; *bāt*, *biter*, from *bītan*, English *bite*. *lid*, Anglosaxon *hlīð*, *hlid*, from *hlīðan*, *hlīdan*, *togene*.**) *ride*, *road*, Anglosaxon *rād*, *iter*, from *rīdan*, English *ride*; *raise*, *rear*. *arouse*, Anglosaxon *rāsjan*, *ræran*, from *rīsan*, English *rise*. *wroth*, Anglosaxon *vrāð*, from *vrīfan*, *torquere*, English *writhe*. *strike*, *stroke*,

*) The parallelism of logical development in *mercere*, French *marcher*, on the one hand, and *step*, *staple*, on the other, is noteworthy; also that the course of development is reversed, the root notion being *marketing* in the former, and *going* in the latter.

**) Comp. *clothe* &c.

Anglosaxon *strica*, *linea*, *strâcjan*, *palpare* from *strîcan*, English *strike*.

The sixth class of Anglosaxon verbs, with the vowels *eó* (*ú*); *ed*, *u*; *o* (comp. *cleófan*, *clúfan* — *cleáf*, *clufon* — *clofen*) is represented by: *loose*, *loss*, Anglosaxon *lêsan*, *lÿsan*, *loa*, from the Anglosaxon *leósan*. *shoot*, *shot*, Old-norse *skot*, *jactus*; *scot*, Anglosaxon *scot*, *tributum*. *sheet*, Anglosaxon *scête*, *linteum*, from *sceótan*, English *shoot*. *frost*, Anglosaxon the same, from *freósan*, English *freeze*; *float*, Anglosaxon *flota*; *flotjan*; *fleet*, Anglosaxon *fléot*, *sinus*; *fleet-milk*, *skimmed milk*, Anglosaxon *flêt*, *flos lactis*, from *fléotan*, Anglosaxon *fleet*.

Many forms of the Germanic family of tongues founded upon verbs which vary the vowel have been lost in English. With the dimming and mixing of forms the language sometimes seeks here, as elsewhere, to arrive at a distinction of the confounded forms by the differentiation of a consonant; comp. *singe*, Anglosaxon *sengan*, from *sing*, Anglosaxon *singan*.

- b) The formation of words by the transfer of an unaltered verbal body to another class of words is in English not to be sharply separated from the formation just treated of, different parts of speech often coinciding with forms attached to verbs which vary the vowel.

But this freer management and interchange of the different parts of speech has, in principle, little in common with that primitive organisation of the word, and is common to the Romance as well as to the Germanic elements of the tongue. It is attached to the licence, practiced to a smaller extent in Anglosaxon than in Old-French, of transferring an underived or even a derived word, without any further derivational termination, to another class of words.

The cases belonging here concern the verb first of all, which readily proceeds from other parts of speech:

- 1) From substantives. Anglosaxon commonly used, with this formation, the derivational vowel *i* (*ê*, *j*): *end-jan*, *ebb-jan*, *land-jan*, *vundr-jan* &c., whereas Old-French contented itself with annexing a mere inflective termination: *branch-er* from *branche*, *brance*; *bargain-er* from *bargaigne*; *esperment-er* from *esperment*, *experiment*. English early contented itself with the stem without a vowel of derivation: *end*, *ebb*, *land*, *wonder*, *branch*, *bargain*, *experiment*, which inflection or the context must shew to be verbs. Modern forms are therefore numerous: *oar*; *mill*; *milk*; *lead*; *beard*; *bag*; *father*; *flea*; *fleece*; *worship*; Anglosaxon *veordscipe*, honor; *witness*, Anglosaxon *vitness*, *testimonium*. — *air*; *experience*; *reverence*; *matter*; *favour*; *humour*; *pity*; *fancy*; *nurture*; *bayonet*; *dungeon*. Even proper names serve as verbs, as: *hector*. Comp. also: You look as if you were *Don Diego'd* to the tune of a thousand pounds (THE TATLER N. 31.). In the frequent identity of sound in verbs and substantives, many verbs, which in Anglosaxon occurred in another form, have been assimilated to substantives, as: *foam*, Anglosaxon subst. *fām* from *fæman*; *snow*, Anglosaxon subst. *snāw* from *snivan*, Old-English *snewen*; *comb*, Anglosaxon subst. *camb*, *comb*, from *cemban*, Old-English *kemben*; *stone*, Anglosaxon subst. *stān*, from *stænan*; *ground*, Anglosaxon subst. *grund*, from *gryndan* and others.

- 2) From adjectives. Anglosaxon often employed the derivational vowel

even here, as in: *idel-jan*, *ēfen-jan*, *open-jan*, *vearm-jan*, *hvit-jan* alongside of *hvit-an* &c., where English offers *idle*, *even*, *open*, *warm*, *white*. Even French formed verbs from adjectives without a derivational termination before the inflection, as *palir*, *cherir* &c. Thus we transfer to Germanic and Romance adjectives the verbal notion: *black*; *english*; *sickly* (SHAKSP.); — *mature*; *mimic* &c. Yet we here often find the adjective termination *en* employed by preference, as it were as a verbal suffix, as in: *meek-en*; *fatt-en*; *whit-en*; *fresh-en*; *deaf-en*; *dead-en*; *thick-en*; *sweet-en*; *hard-en* &c., as the French forms often have the derivational termination *-ish* (iss, Latin *isc*): *cher-ish*; *burn-ish* (brunir, burnir) &c.

3) From pronouns this seldom happens, as in *thou*.

4) From particles: *hence* (SIDNEY) = to send off; *but* (L. BYRON); *encore* (SMART); *atone* (from at one); *in*; *out*; *over* (DICKENS). Interjections often become verbs, as: *holla* and *hollow*: *huzzá*, *hush*, *whist*, *hist*: *Hist along!* (MILTON) = bring along with the warning of *hist!* and the like.

As verbs arise from substantives, so also substantives often arise from verbs, so that we may believe the infinitive turned into a substantive.

This happens not only in Romance words, as the French *change* developed from *changer*, *pleur* from *pleurer*, like other abstract and concrete substantives, but also in Germanic words. It is sometimes not to be settled whether the verb arose from the noun, or reversely. The majority of Romance forms of this sort have been transferred to English, to which, for instance *search* belongs, Old-French *cerche*, *cherche*, now *recherche*. Thus arise *concern*; *turn*; *crack*; *blush*; *fast* (unless shortened from the Anglosaxon *fāsten*), from verbs of the same sound. Here also takes place the assimilation of a substantive, sounding in Anglosaxon differently from the verbal stem, to the verb, as in: *heed*, Anglosaxon from *hēdan*, subst. *hōd*; *wish*, Anglosaxon from *viscan*, subst. *vūsc*; *thirst*, Anglosaxon from *þyrstan*, subst. *þurst*; *kiss*, Anglosaxon from *cyssan*, subst. *cooss*; *sweat*, Anglosaxon from *svætan*, subst. *svāt* and many more.

The transition of adjectives into the substantive meaning, with or without the adoption of the inflective forms of the substantive, may likewise be placed here. See p. 270.

2) Derivation Proper.

With derivation proper, which consists in an augmentation of the word, whereby the general conception, lying at the bottom of the root or stem, is more particularly determined, the Germanic is to be separated from the Romance element, although both here and there pass into or blend with one another. We give here the derivational forms of nouns and verbs, referring to the Doctrine of Particles for the formation of particles.

a) Germanic Derivative Terminations.

The derivative termination or the derivational suffix may be a vowel, if the body of the word is augmented by vowels alone; the suffix is called consonantal, if it contains consonants only, or is formed of a vowel and consonant combined. Purely vowel suffixes are rare, even in Anglosaxon; where they appear in English, they have arisen by the suppression and softening of consonants. But we

consider suffixes according to their form in Modern-English, when we regard the extinct consonant as no longer existing.

We must observe generally that the Germanic derivational suffixes, although often sharply expressed, have remained less fruitful for English than the Romance ones. Many of the former have been lost as such for the linguistic feeling.

Vowel Derivational Terminations.

Here the terminations *y* (*ey*) and *ow* are considered for Modern-English.

y, sometimes *ey*, appears in substantives for the Anglosaxon suffix *ig*: *bod-y*, Anglosaxon *bod-ig* (Old-Highdutch *pot-ah*); *iv-y*, Anglosaxon *if-ig*, (Old-Highdutch *ēb-ah*); *penn-y*, Anglosaxon *pen-ig* (for *pen-ing*, *pend-ing*); *hon-ey*, Anglosaxon *hun-ig* (Old-norse *hunn-ig*). Comp. *kersey*, Swedish *kersing*, French *carisel*, -set, *creseau*.

In adjectives they arise from the Anglosaxon suffix *ig*, *eg*; adjectives of this sort are very numerous in Anglosaxon: *ic-y*, Anglosaxon *is-ig*; *empt-y*, Anglosaxon *emet-ig*; *an-y*, Anglosaxon *an-ig*; *sæn-y*; *mist-y*, Anglosaxon *mist-ig*; *mood-y*, Anglosaxon *môd-eg*; *prett-y*, Anglosaxon *præt-ig*, *prätt-ig*; *blood-y*, Anglosaxon *blôd-eg*; *fenn-y*, Anglosaxon *fenn-eg*, -ig; *dizz-y*, Anglosaxon *dys-ig*; *speed-y*, Anglosaxon *spêd-ig*; *guilt-y*, Anglosaxon *gylt-ig*; *heav-y*, Anglosaxon *hef-ig*, and many more. Subsequent formations are very numerous, with which stems not merely Germanic are considered: *earth-y*, *mould-y*, *bloom-y*; *brier-y* (full of briars); *fer-y* (fire); *word-y* (verbose); *hast-y*; *heart-y*; *hoar-y*; *tallow-y*; *willow-y*; *window-y* (having windows); *balm-y*; *spum-y* &c., after vowels *ey* also appears: *clay-ey*, *sky-ey*, *glu-ey* (from glue). The termination imports the being provided with something.

The diminutive termination *y*, Scottish *ie*, which partly diminishes (as blame) partly flatters, seems formed from *ig*: *dumm-y*; *ninn-y* (fool), *bab-y* (babe), *nodd-y* (fool); especially in proper names: *Billy*, *Betsy*, *Tibby* &c., see p. 177.).

Verbs in *y* have sometimes been developed from adjectives: *blood-y*, Anglosaxon *blod-eg-jan*, *cruentare*; *bus-y*, Anglosaxon *bys-eg-jan*.

ow rests partly upon *v*, which also exhibits itself as *u* in Anglosaxon, partly upon *g* and *h*, with or without a vowel before or after it.

Substantives of this sort are: *mead-ow*, Anglosaxon *mead-u*, -eves; *mall-ow(s)*, Anglosaxon *meal-ve*; *pill-ow*, Hollandish *peul-uw*, Latin *pulvinus*, Anglosaxon *pyl-e*; *wid-ow*, Anglosaxon *vud-uve*; *sparrow-ow*, Anglosaxon *spear-va*; *swallow-ow*, Anglosaxon *sval-eve*, *sveal-ve*; *shad-ow*, Anglosaxon *scad-u*, -ves. — *ew* has arisen here in *sin-ew*, Anglosaxon *sin-eve* and *sin-u*. — *bell-ows*, Anglosaxon *bel-g*; *borr-ow*, (pledge), Anglosaxon *bor-ga*; *will-ow*, Anglosaxon *vil-ig*; *sall-ow*, Anglosaxon *sal-ig*, *seal-h*; *barr-ow*, Anglosaxon *bear-g*, *bear-h*, *bear-ug*; *farr-ow* (litter of pigs), Anglosaxon *fear-h*, *porcus*. — The termination *ough* appears in *bor-ough*, Anglosaxon *bur-uh*, *bur-h*, *bur-g*.

Adjectives in *ow* arise chiefly from *v* (*u*). These end in the strong Anglosaxon form in *u*, *o*, weak in *va*: *narr-ow*, Anglosaxon

near-u; *fall-ow*, Anglosaxon *feal-u*; *sall-ow*, Anglosaxon *sal-u*; *call-ow*, Anglosaxon *cal-u*; *yell-ow*, Anglosaxon *gël-u*. Words in *ig* seldom occur here; but compare *holl-ow*, Anglosaxon *hol*, Swedish *hol-ig*, likewise the subst. *hall-ow*.

Verbs attach themselves to one or the other of those suffixes: *narr-ow*, Anglosaxon *near-v-jan*; *shad-ow*, Anglosaxon *scead-v-jan*; *wall-ow*, Anglosaxon *veal-v-jan*; *borr-ow*, Anglosaxon *bor-g-jan*; *sorr-ow*, Anglosaxon *sor-g-jan*; *hall-ow*, Anglosaxon *hâl-g-jan*.

Consonantal Derivative Terminations.

Derivative consonants are in Anglosaxon either accompanied by a vowel, mostly already weakened, or not. Derivative terminations with more than one consonant are rare. Among them are decayed forms, which we, like others, cite by their last consonant. Two primitive consonants appear sometimes in English as one simple sound; as, *sh* instead of *sc*. That many derivative terminations have been cast off in English is pointed out in the Phonetics.

1) The nasal and liquid letters *m*, *n*, *l*, *r* are, as derivational consonants, of particular importance, and are, in part still distinctly felt and employed as such.

m appears in substantives partly as *om*, partly as *m*, *me*, Anglosaxon commonly *m*, more rarely *em*, *um* or *ma*: *bott-om*, Anglosaxon *bot-m*; *fath-om*, Anglosaxon *fäð-em*; *bloss-om*, Anglosaxon *blōst-ma*, *blōs-ma*; *bes-om*, Anglosaxon *bēs-ma*; *box-om*, Anglosaxon *bōs-um*, *bōs-m*. — *drea-m*, Anglosaxon *dreá-m* (= *dreág-am*); *sea-m*, Anglosaxon *seá-m* (*seó-m*, also *sê-m* according to Boswell); *strea-m*, Anglosaxon *streá-m*; *glea-m*, Anglosaxon *gleá-m*; *hel-m*, Anglosaxon *hēl-m*; *hal-m* and *hau-m*, Anglosaxon *heal-m*, *hal-m*; *hol-m*, Anglosaxon *hol-m*; *qual-m*, Anglosaxon *cveal-m*, *cvel-m*, *cvyl-m*; *ar-m*, Anglosaxon *ear-m*; *swar-m*, Anglosaxon *svear-m*; *har-m*, Anglosaxon *hear-m*; *wor-m*, Anglosaxon *vur-m* — *ti-me*, Anglosaxon *tī-ma* (= *tīha-ma*); *ho-me*, Anglosaxon *hā-m*.

Adjectives are rare: *war-m*, Anglosaxon *vear-m*, Old-Highdutch *war-am*.

Verbs arise from substantives and adjectives, as *fath-om*, Anglosaxon *fäð-em-jan* &c; *ti-me*, Anglosaxon *tī-m-jan*, *accidere*, &c.

Hither we refer the substantive termination *dom* and the adjective termination *some*, both originally selfstanding words, but which in English have the import of suffixes only.

dom, Anglosaxon *dôm*, Highdutch *thum* (Anglosaxon *dôm*, *examen*, *judicium*, *auctoritas*) denotes, in composition with names of persons, their station, dignity, power and dominion: *king-dom*, Anglosaxon *cýning-dôm*; *earl-dom*, Anglosaxon *eorl-dôm*; *bishop-dom*, Anglosaxon *biscop-dôm*; *martyr-dom*, Anglosaxon *martyr-dôm*; *christen-dom*, Anglosaxon *cristen-dôm*, *christianitas*; *heathen-dom*, Anglosaxon *hæðen-dôm*; with adjectives the condition, the essence: *wis-dom*, Anglosaxon *vis-dôm*; *free-dom*, Anglosaxon *freó-dôm*. Even in Anglosaxon *dôm* often interchanges with *hād* (hood) and *nýss* (ness) &c. Many Anglosaxon forms have been abandoned; but few modern ones, as *duke-dom*, *birth-dom*.

some, Anglosaxon *sum*, Highdutch *sam* (Gothic *sama*, *similia*

idem), expresses appropriateness, inclination, aptness and fulfilment, and is annexed to various parts of speech: *long-some*, Anglosaxon lang-sum; *win-some*, Anglosaxon vyn (vun)-sum. Imitated forms are not rare; it is annexed to Romance words: *blithe-some*, *weari-some*, *whole-some*, *glad-some*, *irk-some*, *burthen-some*, *toil-some*, *hand-some*, *game-some*, *labour-some*, *trouble-some*, *humour-some*. In *noisome*, from the Old-French *noisir* = *nuire* an *s* has been cast out; *burom*, Old-English *bowghsomme*, also *bowsom*, belongs to the Anglosaxon *beógan*, comp. *beóg-ol*, *flexibilis*.

n appears in substantives rarely as *in*, more frequently as *en*, *on*, *n* (*ne*), in Anglosaxon mostly as *en*, rarely as *on*, *un* and *n*: *ett-in* (BEAUM. ET FL.), Anglosaxon *ët-on*, *gigas* (*edax*); *welk-in*, Anglosaxon *volc-en*. — *ov-en*, Anglosaxon *of-en*; *mix-en*, Anglos. *mix-en*; *maid-en*, Anglosaxon *mägd-en*, *mæd-en*; *räv-en*, Anglosaxon *hräf-en*, *href-n*; *burd-en*, *burth-en*, Anglosaxon *byrð-en*; *tok-en*, Anglosaxon *tác-on*, *-un*, *-en* (Old-English *swev-en*, Anglosaxon *svef-en*; *stev-en*, Anglosaxon *stēf-n*, *stem-n*); *kitch-en*, Anglosaxon *cyc-ene*; *heav-en*, Anglosaxon *heof-on*. — *ir-on*, Anglosaxon *îr-en*, *îser-n*; *beac-on*, Anglosaxon *beác-en*; *weap-on*, Anglosaxon *væp-en*, *-un*; *wagg-on*, also *wag-on* and *wai-n*, Anglosaxon *väg-en*, *väg-n*, *væn*. — *mai-n*, Anglosaxon *mäg-en*, *-yn*; *rai-n*, Anglosaxon *ræg-en*, *rē-n*; *blai-n*, Anglosaxon *blæg-en*; *brai-n*, Anglosaxon *bræg-en*; *av-n*, Old-Highdutch *ag-ana*, *ak-ana*; *loa-n*, Anglosaxon *læn* = *læh-en*, Old-norse *lā-n*; *fer-n*, Anglosaxon *fear-n*; *quer-n*, Anglosaxon *cveor-n*; *bar-n*, dialectically = child, Anglosaxon *bear-n* (barn, is a compound *ber-ār-n*, contracted *bern*); *yar-n*, Anglosaxon *gear-n*; *mor-n*, Anglosaxon *morg-en*, *mor-n*; *thor-n*, Anglosaxon *þor-n*; *cor-n*, Anglosaxon *cor-n*; *hor-n*, Anglosaxon *hor-n*. — *tha-ne*, Anglosaxon *pēg-en*, *pē-n*.

Adjectives in *en*, *n*, Anglosaxon *en*, *n*, are with the exception of names of materials, rare: *ev-en*, Anglosaxon *ēf-en*; *op-en*, Anglosaxon *op-en* (participle from **eópan*); *drunk-en*, Anglosaxon *drunc-en* (participle from *drincan*); *heath-en*, Anglosaxon *hæð-en*. — *fai-n*, Anglosaxon *fæg-en*; *ow-n*, Anglosaxon *âg-en* (participle from *âgan*); *der-n*, Anglosaxon *der-ne*; *ster-n*, Anglosaxon *ster-ne*.

More frequent are adjectives in *en*, Anglosaxon *en*, Old-Highdutch *in*, Old-norse *inn*, Modern-Highdutch *en*, which are derived from substantives and by which notions of materials are turned into adjectives. Anglosaxon derived adjectives of this sort from names of beasts also, as *bir-en*, *srín-en*, *gæt-en* &c., in English these like many others, have been abandoned; some, on the other hand, turned into substantives: *ash-en*, Anglosaxon *âsc-en*; *asp-en* (also a substantive), Anglosaxon *âsp-en*; *oak-en*, Anglosaxon *âc-en*; *beech-en*, Anglosaxon *bêc-en*; *birch-en*, Anglosaxon *birc-en*; *lin-en* (also a substantive), Anglosaxon *lín-en*; *flax-en*, Anglosaxon *fleax-en*; *wooll-en*, Anglosaxon *vull-en*, *výll-en*; *silk-en*, Anglosaxon *sēoloc-en*; *wheat-en*, Anglosaxon *hvæt-en*; *lead-en*, Anglosaxon *leád-en*; *braz-en*, Anglosaxon *brās-en*; *gold-en*, Anglosaxon *gyld-en* (gold-en BOSWELL); Old-English *glaz-en*, Anglosaxon *gläs-en*. Some are imitated, as *wood-en*; *hemp-en*; *yew-en*; *twigg-en* (SHAKSP. = made of twigs), *milk-en* &c.

The forms in *er-n*: *easter-n*, Anglosaxon *easter-n*; *westen-n*, Anglosaxon *vester-n*; *norther-n*, Anglosaxon *norðer-n*; *souther-n*, Anglosaxon *sūðer-n*, have substantive forms in *er* at their base, whence Anglosaxon *sūðer*, meridies, occurs. The Old-norse has corresponding forms: *ern*, *orn* in *undern*, Anglosaxon the same, *hora nona matutina*, and *acorn*, Anglos. *ācern*, glans are scarcely to be regarded as derivative suffixes. See Grimm 2, 237. &c. Dieffenbach's Dictionary I. p. 115. 31.

Verbs in *en*, *on*, *n* rest partly upon substantives and adjectives, as: *tok-en*, Anglosaxon *tāc-n-jan*; *beac-on* and *beck-on*, Anglosaxon *beac-n-jan*; *rai-n*, Anglosaxon *rig-n-an*; *ev-en*, Anglosaxon *ēf-en-jan* &c.; of others English has not preserved the nouns, as *fast-en*, Anglosaxon *fāst-en-jan*, subst. *fāst-en*, munimentum; *christ-en*, Anglosaxon *crist-en-jan*, adj. *crist-en*. Many have no noun for their foundation even in Anglosaxon: *glist-en*, Anglosaxon *glis-n-jan*; *heark-en*, Anglosaxon *hērc-n-jan*; *reck-on*, Anglosaxon *rec-n-an*, *rec-n-jan*.

The formation of verbs in *en* has found great favour in English, especially from nouns, and often with a disdain for the simpler Anglosaxon forms, from adjectives: *meek-en*; *madd-en* along with *mad*; *fatt-en*; *fresh-en*; *whit-en*; *tough-en*; *deep-en*; *dead-en*; *thick-en*; *sick-en*; *slack-en* along with *slack*; *sweet-en*; *stiff-en*; *sharp-en* along with *sharp*; *short-en*; *gladd-en* along with *glad*; *hard-en* &c.; from substantives: *length-en*; *height-en*; comp. *fright-en* along with *fright*; *light-en* along with *light* and others. It is also appended to Romance stems: *chast-en* &c.

Here too we must cite the substantive diminutive termination *k-in*, answering to the Middle-Highdutch *ek-in*, *ik-in*, in Modern-Highdutch popular dialects *eck-en*, *ich-in*, Lowdutch *ek-en*, Modern-Highdutch *ch-en*. It is foreign to Anglosaxon, in English it belongs mostly to the popular language. Here belong: *mini-kin*, (from *minion*, Old-Highdutch *minni*), also used adjectively; *mani-kin*, (comp. French *mannequin*); *nipper-kin* = small tankard; *nap-kin* (French *nappe*); *la-kin* = *ladikin* (lady); *lamb-kin*; *lad-kin*; Od's *piti-kins* (pity) (SHAKSP.); *devil-kin*; *kilder-kin*; *can-akin*; so too in the names of dispraise *bump-kin*, *thumb-kin* = awkward, rustic; *slam-kin*, *slammer-kin* = trollop and others; more frequently in Old-English *faunt-ekyn*; especially in proper names: *Wil-ekin*, Modern-English *Wil-kin* (DAME SIRIZ p. 8.); *Per-kyn* (Piers); *Haw-kyn*, *Hal-kyn* (Henry); *Tym-kyn* (Tim-othy), *Tom-kyn* (Thomas); *Daw-kyn* (David), *Sim-ekin* &c.; whence modern family names like *Perkins*, *Wilkins* &c., arise.

l serves for the derivation of substantives as *el*, *l* (*le*), Anglosaxon *el*, *al*, *ol*, *ul*, *l*, *le*: *nav-el*, Anglosaxon *naf-ola*, -*ela*; *weas-el*, Anglosaxon *vēs-le*; *wast-el*, Middle-Highdutch *wast-el*; *teas-el*, Anglosaxon *tæs-el*, -*l*; *haz-e'*, Anglosaxon *hūs-el*; *hous-el*, Anglosaxon *hūs-el*, -*l*; *kern-el*, Anglosaxon *cyrn-el*. — *nai-l*, Anglosaxon *nāg-el*; *tai-l*, Anglosaxon *tāg-el*, -*l*; *sai-l*, Anglosaxon *sēg-el*, -*l*; *snai-l*, Anglosaxon *snāg-l*, *snæ-l*; *hai-l*, Anglosaxon *hag-al*, -*ol*, -*ul*, *hāg-el*; *sou-l*, Anglosaxon *sāv-el*, -*l*; *ou-l*, Anglosaxon *ū-le*; Old-norse *ug-la*; *fou-l*, Anglosaxon *fug-ol*; *ear-l*, Anglosaxon *eor-l*; *pear-l*, Anglo-

saxon pār-l; *chur-l*, Anglosaxon ceor-l. — *ang-le*, Anglosaxon ang-el, -ol; *app-le*, Anglosaxon app-el, āp-l; *need-le*, Anglosaxon nēd-l, nēd-l; *nett-le*, Anglosaxon nēt-ele; *bead-le*, Anglosaxon byd-el; *bust-le*, Old-norse bust-l; *brid-le*, Anglosaxon brid-el, l; *fidd-le*, Anglosaxon fīde-le, Old-norse fid-la = Latin fidicula; *thist-le*, Anglosaxon pist-el; *throst-le*, Anglosaxon prost-le; *sick-le*, Anglosaxon sic-ol, -el; *sadd-le*, Anglosaxon sad-ul, -ol, -el, -l; *steep-le*, Anglosaxon stēp-el; *stap-le*, Anglosaxon stap-ul, -ol, -el; *shack-le*, Anglosaxon scac-ul; *cand-le*, Anglosaxon cand-el; *crad-le*, Anglosaxon crad-ol, -ul, -l; *kett-le*, Anglosaxon cet-il, -el, -l; *gird-le*, Anglosaxon gyrd-el; *hand-le*, Anglosaxon hand-el.

A few adjectives in *il*, *le* have been preserved, as *er-il*, Anglosaxon yf-el, ēf-el; *id-le*, Anglosaxon īd-el; *mick-le*, *muck-le* (obsolete), Anglosaxon mic-el, myc-el, muc-el; *litt-le*, Anglos. lyt-el; *cripp-le* (used as a substantive), Old-norse crypp-ill, gibbosus, claudus. Of the numerous class of Anglosaxon adjectives in *ol*, as *forġit-ol*, negligens; *hat-ol*, odii plenus; *hun-ol*, procax; *hni̇t-ol*, petulcus; *panc-ol*, providus; *picc-ol*, corpulentus, *sag-ol*, loquax; *slāp-ol*, somnulentus &c., hardly one, except *sick-le*, Anglosaxon fic-ol, has been preserved in the written tongue; some are still dialectical, as *forgettle*, whence *forgettish*. *Britt-le*, Old-English *brotel* (from bryttan) seem formed later, *brick-le* (from brēcan).

Many verbs in *l*, *le* were developed from substantives even in Anglosaxon, as *nai-l*, Anglosaxon nāg-l-jan; *sai-l*, Anglosaxon sēg-el-jan; *fow-l*, Anglosaxon fug-el-jan; *brid-le*, Anglosaxon brid-el-jan; *wadd-le*, Anglosaxon vād-l-jan, substantive vād; *whist-le*, Anglosaxon hvist-l-jan, substantive hvistle. Others have been formed in Anglosaxon even without this mean: *nest-le*, Anglosaxon nest-l-jan; *twink-le*, Anglosaxon tvinc-l-jan &c. But this suffix, as in other Germanic and Romance tongues, has been variously employed, and modifies the meaning of the stem in various ways, where, however, the diminutive and the frequentative meaning pervade each other. Hence the expression for a weakened activity in *mizz-le*, to rain small; *dribb-le*, *drizz-le*; *besprink-le*; *frizz-le*; *gigg-le*; *fribb-le*; *dwind-le*; with which diminishment or degradation may be combined: *nibb-le*; *babb-le*; *brang-le*; *wrang-le*; *cack-le*; *dabb-le*; *gutt-le*; or the frequentative meaning of hither and thither comes to the foreground, as in *dadd-le*; *dang-le* &c.

The suffix *s-el*, *s-le*, Old-Highdutch *is-al*, is wanting in English, except in *ou-z-el*, Anglosaxon ō-s-le, Old-Highdutch amisala. In *ground-sel* (ground-sill, gronde-swyle) and *hand-sel* (Anglosaxon hand-selen, from hand-sellan) compounds are contained, and *ar-le* belongs to the Anglosaxon eax, Latin ax-is.

The weakened *ful*, Anglosaxon English *full*, may be regarded as an adjective suffix compounded with substantives: *bale-ful*, Anglosaxon bealu-full; *thank-ful*, Anglosaxon panc-full; *sin-ful*, Anglosaxon syn-full &c. Imitated forms, even with Romance words, are numerous: *art-ful*, *power-ful*, *fruit-ful* &c. Dialects even attach *ful* to verbal and adjective stems: *urgetful*; *weariful*.

A suffix in adjectives, from which adverbs are also developed, is the termination *ly*, Old-English *lich*, later *li*, *ly*, Anglosaxon *lic*,

similis, in use only in compounds, even in Anglosaxon. I mean properly likeness, like *like*, still used independently, comp. *child-ly* and *child-like*, Anglosaxon *cild-lic*, *infantis*; *man-ly* and *man-like*; yet the unaccented *ly*, recedes into the more general meaning of appropriateness and relation; comp. *god-ly* = pious, *god-like* = resembling God, Anglosaxon *god-lic*, *divinus*. Combined with substantives it particularly serves to express conformity and relationship: *father-ly*, Anglosaxon *fæder-lic*, *paternus*; *mother-ly*, Anglosaxon *mōdor-lic*; *friend-ly*, Anglosaxon *freōnd-lic*; and so in connection with other names of persons: *king-ly*; *prince-ly*; *broker-ly*; *bumpkin-ly* &c.; as well as with names of things: *love-ly*, Anglosaxon *luf-lic*; *world-ly*, Anglosaxon *voruld-lic*; *flesh-ly*, Anglosaxon *flæsc-lic*; *heaven-ly*, Anglosaxon *heofon-lic*; *body-ly* &c. It is distributive in notions of time, as *month-ly*, Anglosaxon *mōnād-lic*; *year-ly*, Anglosaxon *geār-lic*; and so in *week-ly*, *dai-ly*, *quarter-ly* &c. Annexed to adjective stems *ly* denotes the approximation to the notion of the stem, partly as a weakening, partly as inclination and tendency: *green-ly*, from the Anglosaxon *grēne*, and in other similar adjectives, now lost, which, on account of their sameness of sound with the corresponding adverbs, have been abandoned; and *loath-ly*, Anglosaxon *lāð-lic*; *low-ly*; *sick-ly*; *clean-ly*, Anglosaxon *clæn-lic*; *good-ly*, Anglosaxon *gōd-lic*; *grim-ly*, Anglosaxon *grim-lic*; to which also *on-ly*, Anglosaxon *ān-lic*, and *dead-ly*, Anglosaxon *deād-lic* belong. *Ly* is annexed to other stems, even to particles: *in-ly*, Anglosaxon *inlic*, *internus*; *over-ly*, Anglosaxon only an adverb *ofer-lice*; Anglosaxon also possessed *up-lic*, *supremus*; *ūt-lic*, *extraneus* &c. For the adverbial *ly* comp. p. 393.

r affords numerous Germanic derivatives, not however to be always distinguished from Romance suffixes.

Here we must first mention substantives in *er*, rarely *r*, *re*, which correspond to Anglosaxon forms in *er*, *or*, *ur*, *r* (*re*, *ra*). They denote partly persons: *broth-er*, Anglosaxon *broð-or*, *-ur*, *-er*; *fath-er*, Anglosaxon *fæd-er*; *moth-er*, Anglosaxon *mōd-or*; *daught-er*, Anglosaxon *doht-or*; *sist-er*, Anglosaxon *sveost-or*, *er*; partly beasts; *add-er*, Anglosaxon *nādd-re*; *beast-er*, Anglosaxon *bēf-er*; *weth-er*, Anglosaxon *wēf-er*; *chaf-er*, Anglosaxon *ceaf-or*; *cult-er*, Anglosaxon *culf-re*, *columba*; *gand-er*, Anglosaxon *gand-ra*; partly concrete objects: *udd-er*, Anglosaxon *ūd-er*, *-r*; *lir-er*, Anglosaxon *lif-er*; *bolst-er*, Old-norse *bólst-r*; *blad-er*, Anglosaxon *blæd-re*; *fin-er*, Anglosaxon the same; *feath-er*, Anglosaxon *fēð-er*; *fett-er*, Anglosaxon *feot-ur*, *-or*; *foold-er*, Anglosaxon *fōð-ur*, *fōdd-ur* &c.; *wat-er*, Anglosaxon *vāt-er*; *timb-er*, Anglosaxon *timb-or*, *-er*; *tind-er*, Anglosaxon *tynd-er*; *tap-er*, Anglosaxon *tap-ur*, *-or*, *-er*; *sil-er*, Anglosaxon *silf-or*, *syf-er*; *should-er*, Anglosaxon *sculd-or*; *ham-er*, Anglosaxon *ham-or*; partly abstract ones: *murd-er*, Anglosaxon *morf-ur*, *-or*, *-er*; *laught-er*, Anglosaxon *hleat-or*; *weath-er*, Anglosaxon *wēd-er*; *wond-er*, Anglosaxon *vund-or*, *-er*; *thund-er*, Anglosaxon *pun-or*; *summ-er*, Anglosaxon *sum-or*, *-er*; *hung-er*, Anglosaxon *hung-ur*, *-or*, *-er*. A mere *r* and *re* appear in *tea-r*, Anglosaxon *tāh-er*, *tæ-r*; *stai-r*, Anglosaxon *stæg-er*; *eag-re* (*tide*), Anglosaxon *ēg-or*, *oceanus*: *ac-re*, Anglosaxon *āc-er*; *f-re*, Anglosaxon *fý-r*. Imitations,

to which *slaught-er* belongs, are often not to be distinguished from Romance.

Names of persons in *er*, which answer to the Anglosaxon *ere*. Old-English *ere*, Old-Highdutch *ari*, require a particular regard. They denote persons by their activity, and were chiefly developed from verbs (although these were sometimes denominative): *mong-er*, Anglosaxon mang-*ere*; *lead-er*, Anglosaxon læd-*ere*; *rid-er*, Anglosaxon rīd-*ere*; *read-er*, Anglosaxon rēd-*ere*; *play-er*, Anglosaxon plēg-*ere*; *bak-er*, Anglosaxon bac-*ere*; *fight-er*, Anglosaxon feoht-*ere*; *fish-er*, Anglosaxon fisc-*ere*; *follow-er*, Anglosaxon folg-*ere*; *fowl-er*, Anglosaxon fugel-*ere*; *full-er*, Anglosaxon full-*ere*; *writ-er*, Anglosaxon vrit-*ere*; *delv-er*, Anglosaxon dēlf-*ere*; *thrash-er*, Anglosaxon þrasc-*ere*; *prisc-er*, rarely from Nouns: *wagon-er*, Anglosaxon vāgn-*ere*; as in many imitated forms: *glov-er*; *hatt-er* &c. Modern forms are not always to be distinguished from Romance ones in *er*, both being confounded, and even *ar*, or occurring instead of *er* in Germanic stems: *li-ar*, *begg-ar*, *sail-or* &c., where the older tongue presented *ere*. We also find *i*, *y* inserted before *er*, whereas this *i*, even in French words in *ier*, is usually cast off: *braz-i-er*; *glaz-i-er*; *coll-i-er*; *cloth-i-er*; *law-y-er*; *saw-y-er*; *bow-y-er*; in a few cases notional differences are attached to *i-er* and *er*. Compare *spurr-i-er*, who makes spurs; *spurr-er*, who spurs. Moreover the termination *er* (*ere*) is transferred also to beasts and lifeless objects: *grasshopp-er*; *grind-er*; *hopp-er*; *ten-pound-er*; *crack-er*; *cool-er*.

It is doubtful whether the *er* often dialectically appended to substantive forms is to be reduced to the above *er* or to the *er* (*ere*) appearing in names of persons. Compare *chopp-er* (HANTS.), *hunk-ers* = haunches (NORTH.). This *er* becomes augmentative: *balk-er*, a great beam (EAST.); *team-er*, a team of five horses (NORF.); and diminutive: *fresh-er*, little frog (EAST.); *grom-er*, a little man, a boy; *blank-er*, a spark (WEAST.). Dialectical forms, as, *mason-er* (also *mason-t-er*), *musician-er* (also *musik-er*), *poeter* &c., point decidedly to the old termination *ere*.

Alongside of this *er*, Old-English *ere*, there stood a feminine termination *st-er*, Anglosaxon *est-re*, *ist-re*, Old-English (*e*)*st-ere*; *bak-st-ere*, Anglosaxon bāc-ist-re; *tapp-ist-ere*, Anglosaxon tǣpp-est-re; *brew-est-ere*; *fruit-est-ere* &c. Comp. p. 250. In Modern-English this termination, like the Old-English *ere*, is used of men with regard to their occupation. This more audible suffix is particularly in use with the people: *malt-ster*; *web-ster*; *whip-ster*; *whit-ster*; *tap-ster*; *team-ster*; *deem-ster*, *dem-ster*, (Isle of Man); *seam-ster*; *huck-ster*. Sometimes the modern tongue attaches a slur to the termination: *lewd-ster*; *pun-ster*; *trick-ster*; *game-ster*. In dialects more such substantives are met with, as *lit-ster*; *band-ster*; *woo-ster*; *salt-ster*; likewise in the older tongue: *thack-stare*, a thatches (PROMPT. PARV.); *shep-ster*, a shearer of sheep (PALSgrave). Hence the family names *Brewster*, *Baxter*, *Webster*, *Whitster*, *Tapster*, *Kempster* &c.

The termination *ster* has remained feminine in a few words, as *spin-ster*, dialectically *bake-ster* (DERBISH.), *sew-ster*, (SOMERSET),

knüt-ster (DEVON); as indeed *er* is sometimes referred to female persons: *bunt-er*, rag-gatherer, common woman.

Adjectives in *er*, *r*, Anglosaxon *er*, *or*, *ur*, are rare: *oth-er*, Anglosaxon *ôð-er*; *lith-er*, Anglosaxon *lyð-er*, *malus*; *bitt-er*, Anglosaxon *bit-er*; *dapp-er*, Hollandish the same; *slipp-er*, commonly *slipp-er-y*, Anglosaxon *slip-ur*; *fai-r*, Anglosaxon *fæg-er* (*sicker*, Old-Highdutch *sihhar*, arising from *securus*, does not belong here), Old-English *waccher*, dialectically *wacker*, Anglosaxon *vacor*, *vaccor*. Dialects have imitations, as, *call-er*, Anglosaxon *côl*, *frigidus*; *hett-er*, Anglosaxon *hât*, *fervidus*.

According to the Anglosaxon precedent many verbs in *er*, derived from nouns, and among them many from comparative forms, have been received into the English: *murd-er*, Anglosaxon *myrð-r-jan*; *feath-er*, Anglosaxon *fið-er-jan*; *fett-er*, Anglosaxon *feot-ur-jan*; *timb-er*, Anglosaxon *timb-er-jan*; *fost-er*, Anglosaxon *fôst-er-jan*, subst. *fôst-re*, *nutrix*; *gath-er*, Anglosaxon *gad-r-jan* (Bosw.), adv. *gad-or*; *hind-er*, Anglosaxon *hind-er-jan*, adv. *hind-er*; *bett-er*, Anglosaxon *bet-er-jan*, Comp. *bet-er*; *furth-er*, Anglosaxon *fyrð-er-jan*, Comp. *furð-ôr* &c. Others arise without this intervention, as: *whisp-er*, Anglosaxon *hvisp-r-jan*; *slumb-er*, Anglosaxon *slum-er-jan*; whence the English substantives *whisper*, *slumber* have been formed. But the verbal formation in *er* has spread further, as in other Germanic idioms. Verbs of this sort resemble those with a derivative *l*, especially in the frequentative sense, yet not without being distinguished from them. They often denote an activity repeating itself, and in the repetition appearing undecided or unstable, as *flutt-er*, *flick-er*, *flatt-er*; *quiv-er*, *quav-er*; *glitt-er*; *glist-er*; *shiv-er*; *hox-er*; especially, and this partly in a reproachful sense, repeated, unclear, disagreeable and defective sounds or noises: *mutt-er*; *falt-er*; *clatt-er*; *gibb-er*; comp. *stamm-er*, from Anglosaxon *stamor*, *balbus*; sometimes with an admixture of desire and of indecision: *hank-er*; *ling-er*. Sometimes, however, the suffix appears to be without any particular influence; it is also annexed dialectically to many other stems than in the written language, as in: *nick-er*, (neigh) (NORTH.); *snick-er*, to laugh inwardly (SUSSEX); *snift-er*, Old-English *snift*, Modern-English *sniff*, *sniffle* &c.

2. Lip-sounds hardly need to be considered in English in Germanic derivations. In words in *mp* (*np*), *lp*, *rp*, *sp* the *p* is by Grimm rightly regarded as derivational; but the derivative sound has long become dead, and no longer felt as such, as in *lim-p*, Anglosaxon *lim-pan*; *hem-p*, Anglosaxon *han-ep*; *yel-p*, Anglosaxon *gil-pan*; *shar-p*, Anglosaxon *scear-p*; *as-p*, Anglosaxon *äs-p*.

A derivative *b* perhaps appears in *lam-b*, Anglosaxon *lam-b*; *dum-b*, Anglosaxon *dum-b*. It is likewise extinct.

A derivative *f*, as it passed into Anglosaxon, partly from a primitive *f*, partly out of *b*, quite like those just named in its ineffectiveness, appears in: *wol-f*, Anglosaxon *vul-f*; *sel-f*, Anglosaxon *sil-f*, Gothic *sil-ba*; *hal-f*, Anglosaxon *heal-f*, *hal-f*, Gothic *hal-bs* and subst. *hal-ba*.

A derivative *f* appears in *dwar-f*, instead of *g* (*h*), Anglosaxon *dveor-g*, *dveor-h*, also *pveor-g*.

In *sil-ver* *v* appears for the Anglosaxon *f* in an audible syllable, Anglosaxon *sil-for*, Gothic *sil-ub-r*; it likewise stands for *f* in *fi-ve*, Anglosaxon *fi-f*, Gothic *fim-f*; *sal-ve*, Anglosaxon *seal-f*, Gothic *sal-ba*. The derivative Anglosaxon *v*, more effective and sensible, is perceptible in English in olden times in the termination *we*; in Modern-English *w* has become mute, and appears in the suffix *ow*, see above.

Here, however, the suffix *ship*, Anglosaxon *scipē*, *scypē* (forma, modus), must be mentioned, which, even in Anglosaxon did not appear as a selfstanding word, but only in composition. It is made use of to form abstract substantives, most frequently joined, as in Anglosaxon, to substantives, particularly names of persons, and denotes then the quality, the condition, the business, the rank or the dignity of the person: *lord-ship*, Anglosaxon *hlāford-scipe* (also as a title, and instead of domain); *friend-ship*, Anglosaxon *freōnd-scipe*; here numerous imitations: *editor-ship*; *apprentice-ship* (along with *-hood*); *author-ship*; *owner-ship*, *lady-ship*; *regent-ship*; *rajah-ship*; *prelate-ship*; *beadle-ship*; *bachelor-ship*; *denizen-ship*; *comrade-ship*; *consul-ship*; *coachman-ship* (*-skill*); *general-ship* *grandee-ship* &c. The suffix is also transferred to higher and lower natures: *god-ship*; *fox-ship* = foxery. More rarely it is added to names of things: *elder-ship*, Angl. *ealdor-scipe*, *dominatio* (Bosw.); *wor-ship*, also in use as a title, Anglos. *veorð-scipe*, honor, in an abstract sense; imitated in: *court-ship*; *discourt-ship*; *relation-ship*. The collective meaning seldom occurs here, as in the Anglosaxon *beor-scipe*, *convivium*. Yet it is preserved, sharply expressed in *land-scape*, formerly also *land-skip* (CLEAVELAND'S P. 1660. p. 70.), Anglosaxon *land-scipe*, provincia, Old-Highdutch *land-scaf* (*-scap*), regio. comp. Old-norse *land-skapr*, consuetudo, as also *lord-ship* denotes a territory. Sometimes it is annexed to adjectives, as in the Anglosaxon *freōscipe*: *hard-ship*, Old-English *drunke-schipe* (GOWER), now drunken-ness.

- 3) Of greater import in derivation than the lipsounds are the tooth-sounds; here *t*, *d*, *th*, *s*, *sh* and the dental *ch* need to be considered.

t appears as a derivative letter for the Anglosaxon *t*, which, in the combinations *ft*, *st* and *ht* without an intervening vowel, answers to the *z* of all Germanic idioms; yet sometimes an English *t* also takes the place of the Anglosaxon *ð*, Highdutch *d*, an interchange which sometimes took place even in Anglosaxon.

In the primitive combination with *f*, *s* and *gh* (Anglosaxon *h*) we meet with *t* often employed to form abstract and concrete substantives: *lif-t*, Old-English, Scottish, Anglosaxon *lyf-t*; *shrif-t*, Anglosaxon *scrif-t*; *gif-t*, Anglosaxon *gif-t*; *wef-t*, Anglosaxon *wif-t*; *vēf-t*; *shaf-t*, Anglosaxon *sceaf-t*, *contus*; *craf-t*, Anglosaxon *crāf-t*; *haf-t*, Anglosaxon *hāf-t*; *crof-t*, Anglosaxon *crof-t*, *praediolum*. — *mis-t*, Anglosaxon *mis-t*; *lis-t*, *lus-t*, Anglosaxon *lys-t*, *desiderium*; *wris-t*, Anglosaxon *wris-t*, *carpus*; *res-t*, Anglosaxon *res-t*, *rās-t*; *gues-t*, Anglosaxon *gās-t*, *ges-t*, *gis-t*; *breas-t*, Anglosaxon *brēost*; *mas-t*, Anglosaxon *mās-t*, *malus*; *lus-t*, Anglosaxon *hlās-t*; *bas-t*, Anglosaxon *bā-st*; *fros-t*, Anglosaxon *fros-t*, *fors-t*, *gelu*; *ghos-t*

(ghas-t in ghas-t-ly &c.), Anglosaxon gās-t, gæs-t; *dus-t*, Anglosaxon dus-t; *gus-t*, Anglosaxon gis-t, Old-norse gus-tr (procella); *thirs-t*, Anglosaxon purs-t. — *nigh-t*, Anglosaxon meah-t; *nigh-t*, Anglosaxon neah-t, nih-t; *riqh-t*, Anglosaxon rih-t; *pligh-t*, Anglosaxon plih-t; *figh-t*, Anglosaxon feoh-t; *fligh-t*, Anglosaxon flyh-t, volatus; *frigh-t*, Anglosaxon fyrh-tu (-to); *wriqh-t* (cart-wright &c.), Anglosaxon vyrh-ta; *sigh-t*, Anglosaxon sih-t; *knigh-t*, Anglosaxon cniht, cneoh-t; *speigh-t*, Old-Highdutch spēh-t; *bough-t*, Anglosaxon byh-t, sinus; *drough-t* also *draf-t*, Anglos. drōh-t, tractus (Bosw.).

Adjectives of this class are: *swif-t*, Anglosaxon svif-t; *sof-t*, Anglosaxon sōf-te, sōf-t, sēf-te. — *fas-t*, Anglosaxon fās-t; *was-te*, compare Anglosaxon vēs-te, desertus, Latin vastus. — *ligh-t*, Anglosaxon lih-t, levis; *riqh-t*, Anglosaxon rih-t; *brigh-t*, Anglosaxon beorh-t, bryh-t; *sligh-t*, compare Old-Highdutch sleh-t, Old-norse slettr, aequus.

Verbs: *sif-t*, Anglosaxon sif-t-an (sife, cribrum); *res-t*, Anglosaxon res-t-an; *thrus-t*, Anglosaxon præs-t-an, torquere; *thurs-t*, Anglosaxon pyrs-t-an. — *riqh-t*, Anglosaxon rih-t-an; *frigh-t*, Anglosaxon fyrh-t-an; *digh-t*, Anglosaxon diht-t-an.

The derivational *t*, answering to the Old-Highdutch *z*, appears in English mostly as *t* without a vowel before it after *n*, *l* and *r*, rarely as *et*, Anglosaxon *t* (te, ta), et, ot, ut

In substantives we find it in: *min-t*, Anglosaxon min-te, Lat. mentha, and Anglosaxon myn-et, Middle-Highdutch mun-iza: *flin-t*, Anglosaxon flin-t; *din-t*, Anglosaxon dyn-t; *ben-t*, Old-Highdutch pin-uz. — *mil-t*, Anglosaxon mil-te; *gil-t*, Anglosaxon gyl-t, delictum; *hil-t*, Anglosaxon hil-te; *bel-t*, Anglosaxon bel-t, balteus; *mal-t*, Anglosaxon meal-t, mal-t; *sal-t*, Anglosaxon seal-t, sal-t; *bol-t*, Anglosaxon bol-t, catapulta; *hol-t*, Anglosaxon hol-t. — *far-t*, Anglosaxon feor-t, crepitus ventris; *war-t*, Anglosaxon veor-t, verruca; *har-t*, Anglosaxon heor-ut, hior-ot, heor-t; *star-t*, Anglosaxon steor-t, cauda, promontorium; *hear-t*, Anglosaxon heor-te; *wor-t*, Anglosaxon vyr-t. — *emm-et*, Anglosaxon æm-ete; *thick-et*, Anglosaxon picc-et; *gan-et*, Anglosaxon gan-ot, fulica; *horn-et*, Anglosaxon byrn-et.

Adjectives of this sort are scanty: *hal-t*, Anglosaxon heal-t, claudus; *tar-t*, Anglosaxon tear-t, asper; *swar-t*, Anglosaxon svear-t, fuscus, niger; *shor-t*, Anglosaxon scor-t.

Verbs: *stun-t*, Anglosaxon styn-t-an, hebetare; *grun-t*, Modern-Highdutch grunzen; *hun-t*, Anglosaxon hun-t-jan. — *mel-t*, Anglosaxon mēl-t-an; *hal-t*, Anglosaxon heal-t-jan. — *shor-t*—fail, shorten, Anglosaxon scor-t-jan, decrescere. The great multitude of Anglosaxon verbs in *etan*, *ettan*, Gothic *atjan*, Modern-Highdutch *zen*, has been abandoned, as *dropp-etan*, stillare; *hopp-etan*, exultare; *réc-etan*, regere; *roc-etan*, eructare; *healc-etan*, English *belch*; *blia-etan*, coruscare; *brod-etan*, tremere; *flug-etan*, volitare; *cearc-etan*, stridere; *canc-etan*, cachinnari, &c.

In substantives a derivational *t* answers to the Anglosaxon *ð*, Old-Highdutch *d*: *thef-t*, Anglosaxon peof-ð; *heigh-t*, formerly *high-t*, Anglosaxon heah-þo; *mark-et* and *mar-t*, Old-norse mark-*dar-t*, Anglosaxon dar-ð, -ðð, -eð. Dialectical forms may

sidered imitations, as: *len-t* (SOMMERSET), loan; *dim-m-et* (DEVON), dimness; Old-English *brusschet*, thicket and the like, *groft* (EAST.) for growth.

For *rt* see below *ard*.

The suffix *est*, Anglosaxon *est*, *ost*, is presented only by substantives: *harv-est*, Anglosaxon *hāref-est*, *hārf-est*, Old-Highdutch *herp-ist*; *earn-est*, Anglosaxon *eorn-ost*,

The Anglosaxon adjective suffix *iht*, *eht*, Modern-Highdutch *ich*, whereby the being furnished, as well as likeness, especially to an object denoted by a substantive stem, seems never to have become familiar in English. It has been confounded with *y*; compare *hær-ih*, *stán-ih*, *porn-ih*, *hóc-ih*, English *hair*, *stony*, *thorny*, *hocky*.

d is likewise a frequent suffix in English. It remains perseveringly faithful to the Anglosaxon *d*, which answered on the one hand to the Gothic *d* and Old-Highdutch *t*, on the other, often to the Gothic *p*, Old-Highdutch *d*. The *d*, answering to the Old-Highdutch *t*, appears in English without exception only immediately annexed to the consonants *n*, *l* and *r*, that put at the side of the Old-Highdutch *d*, with few exceptions, only after vowels.

Substantives with a derivational *d*, *de*, Anglosaxon mostly *d*, rarely *ed*, *od*, *ud*, are numerous: *bri-de* Anglosaxon *brý-d*; *ti-de*, Anglosaxon *ti-d*, for *tihad*; *nee-d*, Anglosaxon *neá-d*; *dee-d*, Anglosaxon *dæ-d*; *see-d*, Anglosaxon *sæ-d*; *spee-d*, Anglosaxon *spē-d*; *mai-d*, Anglosaxon *mæg-ed*, Gothic *magap*; yet comp. Anglosaxon *māgden*, *mæden*, English *maiden*; *threa-d*, Anglosaxon *præ-d*; *hea-d*, Anglosaxon *heáf-ud*, -od, -ed, *heáf-d*; *bloo-d*, Anglosaxon *blō-d*; *floo-d*, Anglosaxon *flo-d*; *moo-d*, Anglosaxon *mō-d*. — *lin-d*, commonly *lin-d-en*, Anglosaxon *lin-d*; *win-d*, Anglosaxon *vin-d*; *rin-d*, Anglosaxon *rin-d*, *hrin-d*; *hin-d*, Anglosaxon *hin-d*, *cerva*; *en-d*, Anglosaxon *en-de*; *ben-d*, Anglosaxon *ben-d*, *ben-de*; *lan-d*, Anglosaxon *lan-d*; *ran-d*, Anglosaxon *ran-d*; *bran-d*, Anglosaxon *bran-d*; *san-d*, Anglosaxon *san-d*; *stran-d*, Anglosaxon *stran-d*; *han-d*, Anglosaxon *han-d*; *woun-d*, Anglosaxon *vun-d*; *groun-d*, Anglosaxon *grun-d*; *houn-d*, Anglosaxon *hun-d*. — *fel-d*, Anglosaxon *fil-d*, *fē-d*; *shiel-d*, Anglosaxon *scil-d*, *scēl-d*; *weal-d*, Anglosaxon *veal-d*, *val-d*; *chil-d*, Anglosaxon *cil-d*; *fol-d*, Anglosaxon *fal-ud*, -od, -ed, *fal-d*, Anglosaxon *feal-d* (from Gothic *falpan*); *gol-d*, Anglosaxon *gol-d* (yet Gothic *gulp*). — *her-d* in *herdman*, *herdsman*, Old-English *her-de*, Anglosaxon *hir-de*; Anglosaxon *heor-d*; *bear-d*, Anglosaxon *bear-d*; *yar-d*, Anglosaxon *gear-d*; *boar-d*, Anglosaxon *bor-d*; *hoar-d*, Anglosaxon *hor-d*, *thesaurus*; *for-d*, Anglosaxon *for-d* (BOSWELL); *wor-d*, Anglosaxon *vor-d*; *swor-d*, Anglosaxon *sveor-d*.

Adjectives are not frequent; here, along with *d*, *ed* also exists: *dea-d*, Anglosaxon *deá-d*; *lou-d*, Anglosaxon *hlū-d*; *nak-ed*, Anglosaxon *nac-od*. — *blin-d*, Anglosaxon *blin-d*. — *ol-d*, Anglosaxon *al-d*, *eal-d*; *col-d*, Anglosaxon *ceal-d*, *cald*; *wil-d*, Anglosaxon *vil-d* (yet Gothic *vilpeis*); *bol-d*, Anglosaxon *bal-d*, *bol-d* (yet Gothic *balps*); *fol-d*, Anglosaxon *-feal-d* (yet Gothic *falps*); *har-d*, Anglosaxon *hear-d*.

Verbs: *nee-d*, Anglosaxon *nē-d-an*. — *bin-d*, Anglosaxon *bin-d-an*;

win-d, Anglosaxon *vin-d-au*; *grin-d*, Anglosaxon *grin-d-an*; *en-d*, Anglosaxon *en-d-jan*; *wen-d*, Anglosaxon *ven-d-an*; *sen-d*, Anglosaxon *sen-d-an* (even Gothic *sandjan*, although belonging to *sinþ* **sinþan*); *shen-d*, Anglosaxon *scen-d-an*; *stan-d*, Anglosaxon *stan-d-an*. — *hol-d*, Anglosaxon *heal-d-an*; *gir-d*, Anglosaxon *gir-d-an*.

The Suffix *ed* in adjectives, Anglosaxon *ed* (*ôd*) is nothing but the participial termination, which is also added to stems from which no other verbal forms are made. This happened even in Anglosaxon: *horn-ed*, Anglosaxon *hyrn-ed*, *cornutus*; *sword-ed*, Anglosaxon *geswurd-ôd*, *ense armatus*. English forms many from substantives, mostly expressing thereby the being furnished with the object contained in the stem: *beaver-ed* (covered with beaver); *beak-ed* (having a beak); *key-ed* (furnished with a key, set to a key); *castl-ed* (having a castle, castles); *client-ed* (furnished with clients); *jacket-ed* (wearing a jacket) &c. often in compounds: *bandy-legged*; *bare-headed*; *bare-faced* &c. Thus also forms in *-at-ed* occur, not derived immediately from a substantive: *bacc-at-ed* (having berries); *auricul-at-ed* (having large ears); *aur-at-ed* (resembling gold) &c.

and, Anglos. *end*, Modern-Highdutch *end*, is still found as a substantive suffix in: *err-and*, Anglosaxon *ær-ende* (from *âr*, *nuntius*); *thous-and*, Anglosaxon *pûs-end*.

old and *ald* seem equally to point to the substantive *veald*, *vald*, which appears in Medieval-Latin as *oaldus*, *aldus*, French *oud*, *aud*, *ault*, in: *thresh-old*, Anglosaxon *prêsc-vald*, *-vold*, *-old*; Old-English *thresh-wold* &c.; *cuck-old*, Medieval-Latin *cugus* (*cucullus*), Old-French *cougoul*, Old-English *coke-wold*; as in proper names: *Har-old*, Old-Highdutch *hariovalt*; *Reyn-old*, Old-Highdutch *ragin-alt*; compare Old-English *Ose-wold*, Anglosaxon *Os-veald*, *Ecg-veald*; *Ædel-vald*, *-veald*, *-vold* &c. Here belong also *her-ald*, (= *Harold*, *-ald*, army ruler), *rib-ald* (DIEZ Romance Dictionary p. 287.), which, however, rests immediately upon the Old-French. Old-English: *ribaud*, *ribaud*.

In substantives stands the suffix *ard*, sometimes *art*, answering to the Anglosaxon *heard*, *durus*, *fortis*. This Germanic suffix is also found in Old-French, which seems to have influenced English. The Anglosaxon, as well as the Old-Highdutch, only offers proper names, as *Rich-ard*, Anglosaxon *Rîc-heard*, *Ædel-heard* &c. The suffix expresses that the quality, activity or thing exists in a high degree in the object expressed by the word. Sometimes, however, it is employed in a censorious sense, especially in names of persons, as in French, from which many words have been immediately taken: *nigg-ard*; *wiz-ard*; *dizz-ard*, *dull-ard*; *drunk-ard*; *stink-ard*; many are, like similar French ones, at the same time adjectives, as: *lagg-ard*; *bragg-art*; *slugg-ard*. *Dastard* = Anglosaxon participle *dastrôd* does not belong here. Some are taken from the French, as *bast-ard*, *palli-ard*, *cow-ard* (*couard*), *galli-ard*, perhaps also *hagg-ard* &c. We have, without a collateral notion of blame, *Span-iard*, as well as *Savoy-ard*, after the French precedent. In names of beasts are found *ard*: *poll-ard*, a stag that has cast its antlers; *spitt-ard*; *stagg-ard*; agreeing with the French: *mall-ard*, French *mal-art*; *buzz-ard*, French *bus-art* &c. The derivational

termination used of things is found in *poll-ard*, and mostly in French words, as: *pet-ard*, *poni-ard* &c. As to *scab-bard*, comp. below Composition.

Words in *er* have often been transformed into *ard*, *ari*, as: *giz-zard*, French *gésier*, *gigeria*; dialectically *millart* for *miller*; *miser* for *miser* &c.

red, Anglosaxon *ræd*, *rêd*, Modern-Highdutch *rath* (Hei-rath), commonly *ræden*, is in use as a suffix in a few substantives: Old-English *sib-rede*, Anglosaxon *sib-ræden*, *affinitas*; *frend-rede* (friendship); *man-rede* (vasselage); Modern-English *kind-red* (perhaps from Anglosaxon *ge-cynd*, *generatio*); on the other hand Old-English *kun-rede*, *kyn-rede* (Anglosaxon *cynn*); *hat-red*, Anglosaxon *hete*, from *hatjan*. The Anglosaxon suffix *rêd*, *ræd* only stands in *hir-rêd*, familia, else *ræd* is only adjective; here, however, *hund-red*, Anglosaxon *hund-red*, -rid, Old-norse *hund-rad*, may also belong. Compare Anglosaxon *rād*, *promptus*, from *ridan*.

hood, sometimes *head*, Anglosaxon *hād*, as a selfstanding substantive: *persona*, *status*, *ordo*, Old-English mostly *hede*, *hed*, yet also early *hode* (MAUNDEV.), is the Modern-Highdutch *heit*. Even Anglosaxon employed *hād* to form abstract nouns. The termination is added to names of persons, in order to denote their nature or condition, but admits also a collective meaning; as well as to adjectives, in order to substantive the notion as an abstract quality. The termination *hood* commonly appears in Modern-English. From names of persons are formed: *maid-hood*, *maiden-hood*, Anglosaxon *mægð-hād*, *mæden-hād*; *man-hood*, Anglosaxon *man-hād*; *priest-hood*, Anglosaxon *preost-hād* (also collective); *brother-hood*, Anglosaxon *brōðor-hād* (also collective); *wife-hood*, *woman-hood*, Anglosaxon *wif-hād*, *sexus*, Old-English *wif-hood*; *child-hood*, Anglosaxon *cild-hād*; *knight-hood*, Anglosaxon *cniht-hād* (also collective); imitations are: *neighbour-hood* (collective); *widow-hood*; *apprentice-hood*, Old-English *prentis-hode* and others. From adjectives substantives of this sort were seldom formed in Anglosaxon, as *ēfen-hād*, *aequa conditio*. English formed numbers, whereof many have been abandoned: *likeli-hood*; *lowli-hood*; *lusti-hood*; *false-hood*; *fair-hood* (Fox's Martyrs); *hardi-hood* and others; Old-English *luper-hede*, *grene-hed* (childishness); *humble-hede*; *yong-hede* &c. The termination *head* is still found in a few forms: *god-head*, *maiden-head*, *bounti-head*, *lusti-head*, *goodli-head*, mostly as obsolete collateral forms.

th as a derivational sound, answers to the Anglosaxon *ð*, which only in a few cases has become the English *t*.

The suffix *th*, Anglosaxon *ð*, rarely *eð*, *að*, *oð*, *uð*, is found in substantives of concrete and abstract meaning, and has shewn itself effective in abstract substantives, and also in imitated forms. Concrete substantives are: *ear-th*, Anglosaxon *eor-ðe*; *mon-th*, Anglosaxon *mōn-āð*, -*ôð*, -*úð*, *mon-ð*; *bur-th-en*, also *burden*. Anglosaxon *byr-ð-en*, comp. Old-Highdutch *pur-di*; *bro-th*, Anglosaxon *bro-ð*, *jus*; *too-th*, Anglosaxon *tō-ð*; *hea-th*, Anglosaxon *hæ-ð*, *erica*, comp. Old-Highdutch *hei-da*, *erica*, *hei-di*, *campus*. Abstract nouns are: *dea-th*, Anglosaxon *deá-ð*; *slo-th*, Anglosaxon *slev-ð*,

slāv-ð; *you-th*, Anglosaxon geōg-ðð, -ðð, -ûð, -eð; *tru-th*, Anglosaxon treōv-ðo, tryv-ð, treó-ð (BOSWELL); *til-th*, Anglosaxon til-ð; *mir-th*, Anglosaxon mer-ð, myr-ð &c.; *bir-th*, Anglosaxon beor-ð, also byr-ð (BOSWELL); *heal-th*, Anglosaxon hæl-ð; *leng-th*, Anglosaxon leng-ð; *streng-th*, Anglosaxon streng-ðu, -ðo, -ð. Others are found in other Germanic idioms: *weal-th*, Old-Highdutch weli-da, -pa; *wid-th*, Old-norse vid-d; *bread-th*, Old-English brede and breadthe (MAUNDEV.), Old-norse breid-d; *dep-th*; Old-norse dýp-t. English readily forms these from verbs and substantives: *spil-th*, *steal-th*, *grow-th*; *warm-th*, *dear-th* &c. Scottish transformations of the Romance suffix *tie* (*ty*) by the addition of the Anglosaxon suffix are: *poor-tith*; *boun-tith*; this new suffix was then added to Germanic stems, as in: *mel-tith*, a meal. See Fiedler p. 175.

Adjectives with Anglosaxon ð, English *th*, *the* are: *soo-th*, Anglosaxon sô-d = san-að; *un-cou-th*, Anglosaxon cû-ð, participle from cann, un-cû-ð, ignotus; *wor-th*, Anglosaxon veor-ð, vur-ð; *li-the*, Anglosaxon li-ðe (BOSWELL), Highdutch *linde*; Old-English *svi-the*, adv., Anglosaxon sviðe, from the adj. svi-ð, Highdutch *geschwinde*.

Verbs, except a few denominatives, as *li-the*, Anglosaxon li-ðigēan, mitigare, are wanting.

s, also contained in *x* (*cs*), answers to Anglosaxon *s*.

In substantives stands the suffix *se*, also *ese*, Anglosaxon commonly *s* (*sa*), yet also *ese*: *hal-se*, Anglosaxon heal-s, hal-s; *ar-se*, Old-English er-s, Anglosaxon ear-s, ār-s, ar-s; *hor-se*, Old-English hor-s, Anglosaxon hor-s; *cur-se*, Anglosaxon cur-s; *goo-se*, Old-English goo-s, Anglosaxon gô-s; *ev-es*, Anglosaxon yf-ese; often, in combination with a preceding guttural, as *x*: *ax*, Anglosaxon āx, eax, acas, compare Gothic aquizi, Old-Highdutch ahh-us; *lax*, Anglosaxon leax, lex (now obsolete), Old-Highdutch lah-s; *wax*, Anglosaxon veax, vāx, Old-Highdutch wah-s; *flax*, Anglosaxon fleax, Old-Highdutch flah-s; Old-English *fax*, whence the Modern-English *fax-ed* (obsolete), Anglosaxon feah-s, feax, fex, crinis; *ox*, Anglosaxon oxa, oh-sa; *fox*, Anglosaxon fox, Old-Highdutch fuh-s.

Here are considered a few verbs with a derivational *s* (*se*): *bles-s*, Anglosaxon blêt-s-jan, blês-s-jan; *rin-se*, Old-norse hrein-sa, compare French rincer, Anglosaxon hrænan, purgare; *clean-se*, Anglosaxon clæn-s-jan (clæsnjan); *cur-se*, Anglosaxon cur-s-jan; exclusive of English denominatives, like *wax*.

The Anglosaxon substantive suffix *els*, was still effective in Old-English: *rek-ils*, Anglosaxon rēc-els, thus; comp. Anglosaxon stic-els, aculeus; frēc-els, periculum &c.; even in imitated forms: *met-els* (from the Anglosaxon mētan) and *drem-els*, a dream. It has been abandoned.

ness, Anglosaxon *ness*, *niss*, *nyss*; Gothic *nassus*; Old-Highdutch *nassi*, *nissi*, *nissa*; Middle-Highdutch *nisse*, *nüsse*, *nusse*; Modern-Highdutch *niss*, is a frequent suffix to form abstract substantives from Nouns, but particularly from adjectives. In modern times it has often taken the place of other Anglosaxon suffixes, for instance, in the suffix *-less-ness*: *life-less-ness*, Anglosaxon lif-leas-t; *reck-less-ness*, Anglosaxon rēce-leas-t, and others, although *rēce-leas-ness* also

occurs. The suffix mostly remains faithful to the denoting of a condition or a quality: *ill-ness*, *evil-ness*, Anglosaxon *yfel-ness*; *old-ness*, Anglosaxon *eald-nyss*; *rank-ness*, Anglosaxon *ranc-ness*; *bright-ness*, Anglosaxon *bryht-ness*; *fat-ness*, Anglosaxon *fæt-niss*; *drunken-ness*, Anglosaxon *druncen-ness*; *sick-ness*, Anglosaxon *seóc-ness*; *good-ness*, Anglosaxon *gôd-ness*; *heavi-ness*, Anglosaxon *hefig-ness*; *hard-ness*, Anglosaxon *heardness* &c. Transformations of Anglosaxon forms are frequent, as: *needi-ness*, Anglosaxon *nýd-ness*; *readi-ness*, Anglosaxon *râd-ness*; *roomi-ness*, Anglosaxon *rûm-niss* &c.; in order to give to the root word the more decisive tinge of the adjective. Imitations from Germanic and Romance adjectives, even encumbered with derivational suffixes, are very common: *bad-ness*; *bold-ness*; *slow-ness*; *kind-ness*: *braz-en-ness*; *friend-li-ness*; *entire-ness*; *brief-ness*; *art-ful-ness*; *volupt-uous-ness*; *contin-ual-ness*; *arti-fic-ial-ness*; *suit-able-ness* &c.; comp. Anglosaxon *ang-môd-ness*; *âfel-boren-ness*; *aldor-lic-ness* &c. A word in *ness* rarely passes over into a concrete meaning, as *wit-ness*, Anglosaxon *vît-ness*; or into the collective notion of a locality, as *wilder-ness*, Anglosaxon *vildeór-ness*.

The syllable *less*, Old-English *les* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), *less* (PIERS PLOUGHMAN), Anglosaxon *leás*, *vacuus*, with the genitive, Highdutch *los*, may be regarded as an adjective suffix, which is appended to substantives and forms adjectives with a privative meaning: *end-less*, Anglosaxon *ende-leás*; *name-less*, Anglosaxon *nam-leás*; *life-less*, Anglosaxon *lif-leás*; *beard-less*, Anglosaxon *beard-leás* &c. Imitations with Germanic and Romance substantives are very common: *eye-less*; *boot-less*; *wind-less*; *art-less*; *labour-less* &c.

sh appears in English suffixes in a twofold manner: in this sound which has arisen from *sc* the *s* has belonged to the stem and the *c* has been derivational, or both sounds, united into one sibilant, are derivational.

sh answers to the Anglosaxon *s-c*, transposed also in *x* (*cs*), Old-Highdutch *s-c* (not *ch*) with a derivative *c*; only a few *s-c* have been preserved as *s-k*, see *k*. In substantives we find *sh*: *fish*, Anglosaxon *fis-c*, *fix*; *dish*, Anglosaxon *dis-c*, *dix*, comp. *dis-k*; *flesh*, Anglosaxon *flæs-c*; *ash*, Anglosaxon *ās-c*, *fraxinus*; *dash*, Old-norse *das-k*; *frush*, Anglosaxon *fros-c*, *frox*, *rana* (a horse disease?).

Adjectives are: *nesh*, Anglosaxon *hnes-ce*, *nes-c*, *tener*; *fresh*, Anglosaxon *fērsc*, *purus*, Old-Highdutch *vris-c*, *recens*, Old-norse *fres-kr*, *glaucus*; *rash*, Old-Highdutch *ras-c*, Swedish Danish *ras-k*.

Verbs: *wish*, Anglosaxon *vîs-c-an*; *fish*, Anglosaxon *fis-c-jan*; *mash*, comp. Modern-Highdutch *maischen*, from Anglosaxon *mis-c-an*; *wash*, Anglosaxon *vas-c-an*, *vaxan*; *dash*, Old-norse *das-ka*; *thrash*, Anglosaxon *pris-c-an*, *prēs-c-an*.

ish as an adjective suffix, Anglosaxon *isc*, Gothic *isks*. Old-Highdutch *isc*, *isg*, Modern-Highdutch *isch*, wherein the double consonant belongs to derivation, imports in general appurtenance to the notion contained in the stem, and has been used from the most ancient times, for instance, of descent: *engl-ish*. Anglosaxon *engl-isc*; *brit-ish*, Anglosaxon *britt-isc*; *dan-ish*, Anglosaxon *den-isc*; *jew-ish*, Anglosaxon *judê-isc*; *greek-ish*, (MILTON), Anglosaxon *grêc-isc*;

and thus *ir-ish*, Old-norse *îr-skr*; *turk-ish*; *babylon-ish* &c. Sometimes the vowel is cast out, and, in collision with consonants, *sh* even transformed into *ch*: *wel-sh*, Anglosaxon *vealh-isc*, but also *vâl-sc*; *fren-ch*, Anglosaxon *frenc-isc*, Old-English *frensche myles* (MAUNDEV. p. 54.); *scot-ch*, alongside of *scott-ish*, Anglosaxon *scytt-isc*. Appurtenance and kind lie in *mann-ish*, Anglosaxon *menn-isc*, *humanus*; *heathen-ish*, Anglosaxon *hæðen-isc*; *water-ish*, Anglosaxon *väter-isc*; *bard-ish* = *bardic*; *book-ish* = *versed in books* (SHAKSP.); *unbook-ish* = *rough and the like*; yet a slur is here often annexed to the quality, although sometimes presupposed by the stem itself, as in: *rogu-ish*; *bab-ish*; *baby-ish*; *fool-ish*; *fopp-ish*; *brut-ish*; *swin-ish*; *hogg-ish*; even *upp-ish* (vulgar) = *proud*. Frequently approximation to a quality is alone expressed, when adjectives with the suffix *ish* appear: *redd-ish*; *brown-ish*; *green-ish*; *gray-ish*; *yellow-ish*; — *old-ish* (somewhat old); *new-ish* (rather new); *lat-ish* (somewhat late); *long-ish*; *sweet-ish*; *young-ish*; the latter forms belong to English.

Dental *ch*, as a derivational sound, stands for an Anglosaxon *c*, which answers to the Gothic *k*, Old-Highdutch *ch*; it is divided with the English *k* upon this field without any visible principle.

In substantives *ch* often stands: *win-ch*, Anglosaxon *vin-ce*; *fin-ch*, Anglosaxon *fin-c*; *wren-ch*, Anglosaxon *vren-c-le*; *dren-ch*, Anglosaxon *dren-cē*, *dren-c*; *sten-ch*, Anglosaxon *sten-c*; *bir-ch*, Anglosaxon *bir-ce*, Old-Highdutch *pir-icha*; *star-ch*, belonging to the adjunct. *stear-c*; *chur-ch*, Anglosaxon *cyr-ice*, a foreign word.

Of adjectives hardly any other in *ch* occurs than *star-ch* = *stiff*, also used as a substantive.

Verbs of this sort are: *wren-ch*, Anglosaxon *vren-c-an*, *fallere*; *dren-ch*, Anglosaxon *dren-c-an*; *sten-ch*, Anglosaxon *sten-c-an*; *bel-ch*, Anglosaxon *beal-c-jan*.

- 4) Of throat-sounds *k* and *g* have been preserved as derivational letters in a few cases only, the former being inclined to pass into dentals, the latter being frequently softened into a vowel sound or cast off.

k has been seldom preserved after *s*, where it answered to the Old-Highdutch *c*; it stands in the substantive *tus-k*, Anglosaxon *tus-c* = *tvis-c*, as in the foreign words *dis-k*, and *hus-k*, not perhaps belonging to the Highdutch *hülse*, see Diefenbach's Dictionary I. p. 230.; and the unclear *fris-k*. Of verbs *as-k*, Anglosaxon *âs-c-jan*. *âh-s-jan*, *axjan*, *k* has been preserved.

On the other hand *k*, has been more frequent preserved instead of the guttural *c*, which answers to the Old-Highdutch *ch*, Anglosaxon *c* (*ce*), *ac*, *uc*.

Substantives: *drin-k*, Anglosaxon *drin-c*; *swin-k* (obsolete), labour, Anglosaxon *svin-c*; *stin-k*, Anglosaxon *stin-c*; *than-k*, Anglosaxon *pan-c*; *mil-k*, Anglosaxon *mil-uc*, *meol-oc*, *mil-c* &c.; *wil-k*, Anglosaxon *veol-oc*, *veol-c*; *sil-k*, Anglosaxon *sēol-oc*, *sēol-c*; *fol-k*, Anglosaxon *fol-c*; *hul-k*, Anglosaxon *hul-ce*; *lar-k*, Anglosaxon *lāver-ce*; *wor-k*, Anglosaxon *veor-c*; *stor-k*, Anglosaxon *stor-c*; *stur-k*, Anglosaxon *stir-c*. — *haw-k*, Anglosaxon *haf-uc*, *-oc*.

Alongside of *k*, which, with the rejection of the vowel sometimes

preceding it in Anglosaxon, commonly appears in English as a suffix only, *ock*, is also found in substantives, answering to Anglosaxon *oc*, *uc*, as in: *bull-ock*, Anglosaxon *bull-uca*, juvenus; *matt-ock*, Anglosaxon *matt-ôc*, *matt-uc*, Cymrick *mattog*, ligo; *butt-ock*, compare Old-norse *bútr*, truncus; *rudd-ock*, robin readbreast, Anglosaxon *rudd-uc* (BOSWELL); *mull-ock*, Old-English *mullo*, rubbish; *mamm-ock*, shapeless piece, fragment. This suffix is also employed as a diminutive suffix (comp. *bulluca*); *burr-ock*; *pinn-ock*, tom-tit; *padd-ock*, hill-ock; so too in proper names, as *Matt-ock*, *Poll-ock*; and with a *c* inserted: *Willi-c-ock* &c. Compare *Wile-k-in*. Yet the same *ock* is also augmentative, for instance in *padd-ock*, Anglosaxon *padde*, rana.

Adjectives are: *blan-k*, Anglosaxon *blan-c* (BOSWELL); *dar-k*, Anglosaxon *dear-c*; *star-k*, Anglosaxon *stear-c*, compare starch.

Verbs: *win-k*, Anglos. *vin-c-jan*; *blin-k*, Old-Highdutch *blin-ch-an*; *drin-k*, Anglos. *drin-c-an*; *sin-k*, Anglos. *sin-c-an*; *slin-k*, Anglos. *slin-c-an*; *swin-k*, Anglos. *svin-c-an* (obsolete); *stin-k*, Anglos. *stin-c-an*; *shrin-k*, Anglosaxon *scrin-c-an*; *mil-k*, Anglosaxon *mil-c-jan*; *wal-k*, Anglosaxon *veal-c-an*; *mar-k*, Anglosaxon *mear-c-jan*; *bar-k*, Anglosaxon *bor-c-jan*; *har-k* (now hardly except in the imperative) commonly *hear-k-en*, Anglosaxon *hêr-c-n-jan*; *wor-k*, Anglosaxon *vyr-c-an*.

From a derivational *h*, *k* has arisen in the substantive *el-k*, Anglosaxon *eol-h*, Old-Highdutch *el-ah*.

Anglosaxon *g*, Old-Highdutch *k*, in Anglosaxon also interchanging with *c*, *cg*, has been preserved as a derivational sound only after *n*; thus in the substantives: *rin-g*, Anglosaxon *hrin-g*, *hrin-c*; *thin-g*, Anglosaxon *pin-g*, *pin-cg*; *gan-g*, Anglosaxon *gan-g*; *ton-gs*, Anglosaxon *tan-ge*, forceps; *ton-gue*, Anglosaxon *tun-ge*; *thon-g*, Anglosaxon *pvan-g*; *son-g*, Anglosaxon *san-g*, *san-c*; *lun-gs*, Anglosaxon *lun-gen* plur.; as in the adjectives: *lon-g*, Anglosaxon *lan-g*; *stron-g*, Anglosaxon *stran-g*; *youn-g*, Anglosaxon *geon-g*, *jun-g*; and the verbs: *rin-g*, Anglosaxon *hrin-g-an*; *urin-g*, Anglosaxon *vrin-g-an*; *sin-g*, Anglosaxon *sin-g-an*; *stin-g*, Anglosaxon *slin-g-an*; *swin-g*, Anglosaxon *svin-g-an*; *sprin-g*, Anglosaxon *sprin-g-an*, *sprin-c-an*; *han-g*, Anglosaxon *han-g-an* &c.

A derivational suffix, effective down to the most recent period in the language, is *ing*. We have however to distinguish two suffixes of the same form, which perhaps mingle in the modern tongue, but are theoretically to be sharply separated: the one, which is essentially used to form concrete substantives; Old-Highdutch *inc*, and also takes *l* before it, Old-Highdutch *linc*, Gothic *liggs*; the other, which serves to form abstract substantives; Old-Highdutch *unga*, Gothic *eins*.

ing, Anglosaxon *ing*, *m*, is even in Anglosaxon an infrequent suffix to denote men (particularly, yet not exclusively, indicating descent), beasts, coins, with a few imitations: *athel-ing*, *adel-ing*, Anglosaxon *ædel-ing*; *nid-ing*, also *nith-ing*, Anglosaxon *nîd-ing*; *king*, Anglosaxon *cyng* = *cyn-ing*; *lord-ing* (subsequently regarded as a diminutive; compare, on the other hand: *per* was *po* in Engeland a *gret louverding* [ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 431.]); *hild-ing*, a *rufian* (Anglosaxon *hyldan*, *inclinare*); — *herr-ing*, Anglosaxon *hâr-ing*

(although arising from *halec*); *whit-ing*, Lowdutch *wi-ting*; *geld-ing* (comp. Anglosaxon *gelde*, *siccus*); — *shill-ing*, Anglosaxon *scill-ing*; *farth-ing*, Anglosaxon *feorð-ing*, -ung, yet also *feorð-l-ing*; Anglosaxon *pend-ing* (penny) has passed into *pen-ig* even in Anglosaxon. *Ing* operates decidedly as a diminutive in *devil-ing*.

This *ing* with *l* prefixed: *ling*, is used even in Anglosaxon to form names of men and beasts, rarely of things, and is appended to substantives, adjectives, verbal stems and even particles. The expression of disrespect, which is attached to many of these forms, is in great part presupposed by the stem, but in later imitations is intentional. Names of men: *earth-ling*, Anglosaxon *eorð-ling*, *earð-ling*, *servus* (now son of earth); *foster-ling*, Anglosaxon *foster-ling*; *dar-ling*, Anglosaxon *deor-ling*; *hire-ling*, Anglosaxon *hýre-ling*; *easter-ling*; *under-ling* (comp. Old-English *oferling*, *over-ling* = ruler, master); *nurs-ling*; *found-ling*; *change-ling*; with intentional disrespect: *wit-ling*; *world-ling*; *whim-ling*; *pope-ling*; *starve-ling* &c; yet not Old-English *lord-ling* (PERCY Rel. p. 201. II.), although later, as in Swift. In names of beasts diminution is not primarily expressed by this suffix, but the image of young and small is often supposed by the stem, but, therefrom is developed in imitated forms the term for young: *young-ling*, young animal, Anglosaxon *geóng-ling*, *juvenis*; *twin-ling*; *yeau-ling*, (Anglosaxon *eánjan*, *eniti*); *year-ling*; *nest-ling*; *star-ling*; *ground-ling* (fish); Young of beasts: *kitt-ling*; *kid-ling*; *duck-ling*; *chick-ling*; *gos-ling*; *trout-ling*; Trees: *sap-ling*; *oak-ling*. Names of things are rare, as Anglosaxon *bác-ling*, *tergum*. Comp. *chitterlings*; *shor-ling* and some more. The dialectical substantive *hid-ling*, has appended the termination *ing* to the Old-English *hid-el* of like meaning. Abstract substantives, like Anglosaxon *bēorð-ling*, *puerperium*, are wanting in English, except perhaps in *cast-ling*. Sometimes the words in *ing* and *ling* are employed as adjectives.

The termination *ing*, answering to the Anglosaxon *ung*, *ing*, Highdutch *ung*, serves principally to form abstract substantives from verbal stems, whereby in general activity or perseverance in action and the condition are denoted, which the notion of the stem presupposes. It coincides with the termination of the gerundial participle, and may be annexed, as a substantive termination, to almost every verbal stem: *end-ing*, Anglosaxon *end-ung*; *bless-ing*, Anglosaxon *blēts-ung*; *fight-ing*, Anglosaxon *fiht-ung*; *cunn-ing*, Anglosaxon *cunn-ing*; *wander-ing*; *rov-ing*; *act-ing*; *perform-ing* &c. Here also the transition into the concrete meaning occurs. Comp. Anglosaxon *reof-ung*, *textura*; *eard-ung*, *habitatio*. Then the result of the activity is then partly denoted: *build-ing*; *gild-ing*; *lad-ing*, cargo; *leav-ing*, something left; *dripp-ing*; partly a collective notion arises, which imports an object bringing about the activity: *wrapp-ing*, *cover-ing*; *cloth-ing*; which is especially the case with forms derived from denominative verbs: *foot-ing*; *floor-ing* = floor; *pal-ing* = fencework; *shipp-ing*; *shirt-ing*. Such substantives may moreover be derived immediately from substantives: *tavern-ing*, a feasting at taverns. The denoting of a single, not collective existence is rare, as in *be-ing*.

b) Romance Derivative Terminations.

The Romance derivational suffixes which come under review here rest upon the Latin. Many suffixes of this sort were obscured even in Old-French; mutilated forms which, transplanted into English, pass here as stems, have to be discussed in the etymology of the French tongue.*) Words transplanted unaltered from the Latin or other Romance tongues can likewise find no consideration here, even if they conform to the English pronunciation and inflection. In order not to encroach into remoter fields, those suffixes belonging to the French constituent of the tongue which have remained effective in English, although often blended with one another, are cited, when substantives and verbs are divided; the latter, from the manner of their treatment in English, exhibiting but few characteristic suffixes.

1) Derivative Terminations of Nouns.

We divide suffixes according to their final sound, so that those with a final vowel, although forming only a glib shortness, are first considered, then those with a final consonant, (when an *e* mute is disregarded). The former, although partly preceded by consonants, we call generally vowel derivational terminations; those with a final consonant, consonantal derivational terminations.

Vowel Derivational Terminations.

Y. In substantives stands the suffix for French *é*, Latin *atus*, (participle) sometimes in names of persons: *deput-y*, alongside of which the terminations *ey*, *ee*, *ate* are also to be met with. See above.

y often stands, French *é*, for the Latin substantive *atus* (fourth declension) mostly in collective substantives, as *clerg-y*; to which territorial names belong, as: *duch-y*; *count-y*; *Dauphin-y*; rarely abstract nouns, as *treat-y*. Here also we find *ate*. See below.

For the French suffix *ée*, Latin *ata*, *y* (also *ey*) also stands in names of things, especially collectively: *arm-y*, *jur-y* (Medieval-Latin *jurata*), *countr-y*, *jell-y* (gelée); and abstractly: *embass-y*; *entr-y*; *lev-y*; *destin-y*.

Rarely *y* stands for *ée* instead of Latin *aerus*, *a*, *um*, as in *troph-y*.

Very commonly *y* answers to the French *ie*, Latin *ia*, Old-English *ie*, chiefly in abstract and partly collective substantives, which are developed from adjectives and substantives: *ignomin-y*; *modest-y*; *perfid-y*; *fur-y*; *jealous-y*; *courtes-y*; *heres-y*; *comed-y*; *traged-y*; *fanc-y* (fantaisie); *harmon-y*; *baron-y*; *nav-y*; (Old-French *navie*); *famil-y*; *compan-y* &c., to which are added not only many imitations, but also words, which in French have cast off the *i*, as *miser-y* (misere), *fallac-y* (fallace). Of names of countries a few have preserved *y*.

*) We may here refer to Diez's Romance Grammar, and to Mätzner's French Grammar.

for *ie*: *Italy*; *Normand-y*; *Lombard-y*; *Picard-y*; *Thessal-y*; *German-y*; with which *Sicil-y* (Sicile) and some in French *ogre*, *ogre* are associated by metathesis: *Brittan-y*; *Burgund-y* (Burgundia, Burgogne); *Gascon-y*, whereas the most are transmute into the Latin *u*. See below.

We must also observe, that *y* also appears for the Latin *um*, for which the *e* mute is substituted in French: *augur-y*; *obloqu-y*; *obsequ-y* (MILTON); *mister-y*; *minister-y*, *ministr-y*; *monaster-y*; *presbyter-y*; *larcen-y* (larcin, comp. French *larcin*); *remed-y*; *stud-y*; *subsid-y* &c.

Adjectives in *y* hardly occur, except *priv-y* (private); for *hard y*, *hast-y*, *joll-y* answer to other forms. See *irr.*

From the suffix *y* (*ia*) is developed *er-y*, *r-y*, French *er* or *r*, which was primarily indebted for *er* partly to the infinitive termination of the same sound, partly to the substantive termination, but was then regarded as a selfstanding suffix. The *e* is frequently cut out in English after consonants and vowels, but particularly preserved, where it reminds us of substantives in *er*. Imitations are numerous:

The suffix denotes partly the continuous activity or quality presupposed by the root word, frequently as exaggerated activity in the sense of blame: *chival-ry*; *bigot-ry*; *rebald-ry*; *reel-ry*; *bohe-ry*; *fopp-ry*; *pedant-ry*; *devil-ry*; or a condition or station, as *slav-ery*; *outlaw-ry*; *engish-ry*; as the exercise of a business or an art: *bart-ery*; *fish-ery*; *herald-ry*; *blazon-ry*; *post-ry* &c.; frequently too, the product of the activity, as *poet-ry*; *drop-ery*; *taped-ry*; *lac-ery*, also the place where an activity denoted by the root word is practised, or the object denoted thereby is found in abundance: *hulk-ry*; *barb-ery*; *tanhouse-ry*; *war-ery*; *pantry* (French *paneters*), *cut-ry*; *red-ry*; *nunn-ery*; *fer-ry* (Italy, *ferriere*); *mill-ry* (France, *moulin*); *infant-ry*; *caral-ry*; *prophet-ry*; *mon-ry*; *poet-ry*; *mad-ry*; *weave-ry*. It is to be observed that many words with a variety of these meanings.

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cornet-cy; *min-strel-sy*; sometimes also collectively, as *magistra-cy* and *minstrel-sy*. In a concrete meaning we have *lega-cy* (legatum).

The termination (*cy*) *sy*, *zy*, which has taken the place of the Latin *sis*, as in *exta-cy*, commonly *ecsta-sy*; *pal-sy* (paralysis); *fren-zy* (phrenesis), is to be distinguished from the former termination.

Of slight extent are the suffixes *any*, French *ain*, Latin *aneus*, and *ony*, French *ogne*, *oine*, to which we may add also *mony*, French *moin*, *moine*, Latin *monia*, *monium*: *miscell-any*; *chapell-any*; *Gasc-ony* (Gasc-ogne); imitated: *balc-ony*; — *cere-mony*; *patri-mony*; *testi-mony*; *sancti-mony*. Instead of *any*, *ain*, *aign* occur.

Of greater importance are the suffixes *ary* and *ory*, not merely in substantives, but in adjectives also.

ary answers to the French *aire*, *ier*, Latin *arius*, *a*, *um* and *aris*, whereas the French suffixes *ier* and *er* elsewhere pass into *er*, *ar*. Those in *ary* are of English formation. The substantives belonging here often denote persons, who are active or participators in what is expressed by the stem, and are properly adjectives turned into substantives: *incendi-ary*; *penitenti-ary*; *not-ary*; *secre-ary*; *statu-ary*; *vision-ary*; *vot-ary*; *prebend-ary*; *dignit-ary*. Diverging into *ory* is *mandat-ory*, alongside of *mandat-ary*, likewise *invent-ory*. A name of a beast is *dromed-ary*. Names of things also occur, mostly ending in *ier* in French, wherein English approximates to the Latin form; a few are originally masculine (*arius*), as *Janu-ary*; *Febru-ary*; mostly neuter (*arium*): *milli-ary*; *electu-ary*, Old-English *lettuarie*; *columb-ary* (*columbier*, *columbarium*); *gran-ary* (*grenier*); *sal-ary* (*salaire*); *chartul-ary* (*chartulaire*).

Adjectives of this form increase in English: *necess-ary*; *prim-ary*; *tempor-ary*; *extraordin-ary*; *heredit-ary*; *lact-ary*; *cili-ary*; *circul-ary*; *hor-ary* &c., see *ar*.

ory, *t-ory*, French *oire*, *t-oire*, Latin *orius*, *t-orius*, *a*, *um*, often passes over in English substantives into *or*, but remains, especially in adjectives, faithful to the form *ory*. Substantives are: *mem-ory*; *vict-ory*; *hist-ory*; *audit-ory*; *orat-ory*; *monit-ory*; *reposit-ory* &c. Adjectives, many of which are turned into substantives, are: *amat-ory*; *obligat-ory*; *rotat-ory*; *pulsat-ory*; *suas-ory*; *circulat-ory*; *compensat-ory*; *compuls-ory* &c., derived from participles.

ty, Modern-French *té*, Old-French *tel*, *te*, Old-English *tec*, *te*, Latin *tal-em*, serves to form abstract substantives, mostly with the connecting vowel *i*, sometimes *e*, yet also without a vowel: *antiqui-ty*; *maligni-ty*; *liberali-ty*; *vani-ty*; *digni-ty*; — *pie-ty* alongside of *pi-ty* (Old-French *pite*); *varie-ty*; *satie-ty*; *liber-ty*; *pover-ty* (Old-French *poverte*); *plen-ty* (Old-French *plente*); *proper-ty* alongside of *proprie-ty*; *certain-ty* &c.

Some assume a concrete, mostly a collective meaning, as *universi-ty*; *lai-ty*; *ci-ty* &c.; *gratui-ty* (present); even for an individual: *dei-ty*.

ey, as a substantive, answers partly to the Modern-French *é* and *ée*, Latin *atus*, *a*, *um*, partly *aie* (Old-French, also *oie*, *eie*), Lat. *et*, partly *ie*, Latin *ia*: *attorn-ey*, Old-French *atorne* (*-atus*); *vall-ey*, Old-French *valee*; *voll-ey*; *chimn-ey*; *journ-ey*; *cov-ey* (*couvée*); *medl-ey*; (*mixture*); *part-ey* (*oral treaty*); — *mon-ey*, Old-French *moneie*; *comp-*

tourn-ey, Old-French torneis, tornoi; — *gall-ey*, Old-French galie, ja-laie; *Turk-ey*, *abb-ey* (abbatia).

ee, French *é*, Latin *atus*, is used in legal expressions of the person who participates passively in an act; to the personal names in *ee* there commonly stands opposed one in *or*, *er*, as that of the active participator: legator — *legat-ee*; appellor — *appell-ee*; pawnor — *pawn-ee*; promisor — *promis-ee*; bailor — *bail-ee*; vendor — *vend-ee*; granter — *grant-ee* (one to whom a grant is made) &c. Sometimes the personal name is devoid of this passive meaning: *refug-ee*; *ee* even seems augmentative: *devot-ee*; *grand-ee*.

In names of things too we find *ee*, mostly equal to the French *de*, Latin *ata*: *lev-ee*; *couch-ee*; *jamb-ee*; yet also collectively of persons: *committ-ee*, in the passive sense.

We must distinguish herefrom the *ee* which sometimes occurs for the French *e*, *ée*, Latin *acus*, *a*, *um*: *jubil-ee* (jubilaus sc. annus), particularly in names: *Pharis-ee*; *Sadduc-ee*; *Pyren-ees*.

ia, Latin *ia*, which in French passed into *ie*, was often entirely cast off, whence many forms in English descend, as *anguish* (angoisse = angustia), *envy* (envie = invidia), *grace* (= gratia); *Gaul* (Gaule = Gallia), *Greece* (Grèce = Graecia) &c. Yet in modern times proper names of countries in particular have frequently assumed the Latin termination *ia*, even contrary to the Old-English custom: *Ind-ia*; *Ethiop-ia*; *Arab-ia*; *As-ia*; *Pers-ia*; *Bactr-ia*; which is also transferred to others: *Lithuan-ia*; *Bavar-ia*; *Dalecarl-ia*; *Siber-ia*; *Sardin-ia*; *Caf-frar-ia* &c.; as the Latin *a* has also returned in other names: *Afric-a*; *Americ-a*; *Louisian-a*; *Chin-a* &c.

o is found as a suffix and in foreign words, as *negr-o*, *volcan-o* &c.; *ech-o* (ἠχ-ω = ἠχ-ή) and the like.

ue, *tue* is a rare suffix, answering to the French *ue*, *tu*, *tue*: *statue*, French the same, Latin *sta-tua*, from *sta-tum*; *virtue*, French *ver-tu*, Latin *vir-tutem*; *val-ue*, Ital. *val-uta*.

Consonantal Derivational Terminations.

1) The nasal and liquid letters *m*, *n*, *l*, *r* are of particular importance among the Romance derivational consonants.

m, *me* appears in abstract substantives, like the French *me* instead of the primitive Greek *μα*: *apophtheg-m*; *paradi-g-m*; *phleg-m*; *the-me*; *sche-me*; but in part instead of the Latin *men* (*i-men*, *a-men*, *u-men*): *real-m*, Old-French *real-me*, Medieval-Latin *regal-i-men*; *cri-me*; *vol-u-me*; *leg-u-me* (also *leg-u-men*). In *vict-im* it stands for the Latin *vict-ima* (from *vinco*); in *cost-ume* and *cust-om* for the Latin *udinem* (*consuet-udinem*); in *ransom*, *m* has come in for *n* (Old-French *raancon* = *redemptionem*).

asm, French *asme*, in part with an *a* of the stem before *sm*, rests upon Greek-Latin *asma*, *asmus*: *mi-asm*; *ch-asm*; *catapl-asm*; *enthusi-asm*; *sarc-asm*; *fant-asm*.

ism, French *isme*, apart from the suffix resting upon the Greek-Latin *isma*, wherein the vowel is identical with the vowel of the stem, as in *prism*, *schism*, is the derivational termination resting upon the Latin-Greek *ismos*, *ισμός*, and of extensive use. It is not

only formed from verbs, as originally, but is also added, as in French, to noun stems. It expresses a bias to the activity signified by the stem, or an adherence to principles or doctrines, or a totality of principles and doctrines themselves: *mechanism*; *despotism*; *patriotism*; *pugilism*; *Platonism*; *Judaism*; *Christianism*; *Calvinism*; *paganism*; *gentilism*; *heathenism*; often a blamable bias: *mannerism*; *papism*; *deism*; *babyism* &c.; to which *egoism*, formed from the personal pronoun (French the same, with *egoïsme*) also belongs. We also denote thereby idiomatic modes of expression: *provincialism*; *vulgarism*; *Irishism* &c. From the verbs derived from *ικός*, *icus* (like ἀττικίζω) and the forms *ικισμός*, *icismus* arising out of them, forms in *icism* are derived: *atticism*; *empiricism*; *fanaticism*; *Hibernicism* and even *witticism*. — Upon the form *ισμα* rests *baptism*, Old-French *baptisme*, -esme, Modern-French *baptême*.

n appears in suffixes with vowels before it, which however are often interchanged in English.

in, *ine*, French *in*, *ine*, Latin *inus*, also *inus*, sometimes *inem* (*virginem*), serves to form numerous substantives and adjectives.

Substantives, answering to the termination *inus*, *ina*, although not treated alike in the sound and quantity of the vowel and in the accent, are partly names of persons, originally mostly of the masculine gender, as: *libertine*; *palatine*; *cousin* (*consobrinus*, a); *divine*; *concubine* (*concubina*); to which belong also names of notions, as: *Lat-in*; *Philistin*; *Sabin* &c.; and names of beasts, as: *dolphin*; *sabine* (a fish). To these are attached primitive names of things in *ina*, and imitated forms in French, both abstract and concrete: *ruin*; *medecin*; *disciplin*; *doctrin*; *seizin* (*saisine*); *famin*; *urin*; *resin*; *bobb-in* (*bobine*); *vermin* (*vermine*); *javelin* (*javeline*) &c., where we disregard words received with their French accent. Others are originally neuters, as: *intestine*, *mat-in* (SHAKESPEARE) (*matutinum*) &c. The scientific names of materials in *in* or *ine*, are imitated, as: *ela-in*; *legum-in*; *case-in*; *butyrine* &c. *Court-ain* has deviated, Old-French *courtine*; as in *engine*, Old-French *enging*, *engien*, Latin *ingenium*, the syllable *ine* belongs to the stem.

This suffix sometimes appears as a diminutive, as in *fort-in* (*fortlet*); *cab-in*, Cymric *cab-an*, Dimin. from *cab*; *cod-l-in* alongside of *cod-l-ing* = small cod.

The suffix *in*, *ine*, French *ine*, Latin *inem*, is rare: *virgin*, Old-French *vergin*; *or-igin*.

The adjectives in *ine*, French *in*, Latin *inus* and *inus*, coincide, with a partial interchange of the long and the short vowel. The suffix denotes the appurtenance to the substantive notion contained in the stem, partly according to descent, by which the above substantives are also explained. To the Latin *inus* answer: *porcine*; *bovine*; *feline*; *ferine*; *divine*; *saline*; but also *alpine*; *murine*; *feminine*; *vulpine*; *corvine*; *clandestine* &c.; to *inus*, originally belonging mostly to names of vegetable and mineral things: *elephantine*; *coralline*; *hyacinthine*; *crystalline* (according to some *ine*). Imitations mostly end in *ine*: *lacertine*; *cancerine*;

sacchar-ine; yet *or-ine*. *Mar-ine* has deviated into the pronunciation *žen*, like some substantives with a French pronunciation. *ine* seldom answers to a primitive *ineus*: *sangu-ine*.

en is a rare Romance suffix of substantives, arising, by divergence, from *ain* for *amen* and *ain*, *aine*, Latin *anus*, *a*, *um*, in: *leav-en*, French *lev-ain*, Latin *lev-amen*, Old-English *leveyne* (GOWER); *mizz-en*, Ital. *mezz-ana*, French *mis-aine*; *doz-en*, French *douz-aine*; it stands for *ien* (*oyen*), *itanus*, in *citi-z-en*, Old-French *citien*, *citeain*, in which *z* seems to have arisen from the allied *deniz-en*, from Cymric *dinas*, *urbs*. In *ward-en* alongside of *guard-ian* the Old-French *gard-ein*, *-ain* has been preserved; *mitt-ens*, Old-French *mitan*, has like *warr-en*, French *garenne*, Medieval-Latin *warena*, an obscured suffix.

In adjectives *en* is found in *sudd-en*, which fluctuates between the French *soud-ain* (*subitanus*) and the Anglosaxon *soden*; and in *ali-en* (Latin *ali-enus*).

ain is likewise a rare suffix for substantives and adjectives. In substantives, which are properly only adjectives used substantively, it stands for the French *ain*, *aine*, Latin *anus*, *a*, *um*. Here it certainly mostly yields to the suffix *an*: *vill-ain* alongside of *vill-an*; *chapl-ain*; *capt-ain* and *chieft-ain*, Old-French *chevet-aine*; *fount-ain*. This suffix is of doubtful origin in *porcel-ain*, Ital. *porcell-ana*; *purs-ain*, Ital. likewise *porcell-ana*, from the Latin *porcilaca*. Of adjectives we must cite *cert-ain*, while the Old-French *sover-ein*, *super-anus*, has passed into *sover-eign*; like *for-ain* into *for-eign*.

Sometimes this suffix arises from the French *aine* and *agne* instead of the Latin *ania*, *anea*, partly with a French mute *g*: *barg-ain*, Old-French *barg-aine*, *-aigne*, from the Latin *barca*?; *Sp-ain*, French *Espagne*, *Hispania*; *Brit-ain* (*Brit-annia*); *Champ-aign*, Old-French *champ-aigne*, *Campania*.

an, particularly in *ian*, also in *ean* is, on the other hand a very familiar suffix.

an answers to the French *an*, *ain*, more rarely *en*, Latin *anus*, *a*, *um*, an adjective termination, frequently turned into substantives, denoting in the most general manner appurtenance to the notion expressed in the substantive stem. Names of persons are here principally considered: *artis-an*, French the same; *veter-an*, French the same; *mahomet-an*, French the same; *public-an*, French *public-ain*; *republic-an*, French *ain*; particularly names of nations: *Tusc-an*, French *Tosc-an*; *Americ-an*, French *-ain*; *Mexic-an*, French *-ain*; *Rom-an*, French *-ain*; *Germ-an*, French *-ain*; *Troj-an*, French *Troy-en*. The French *day-en* appears in the form *de-an*. Primitive feminines are: *courtez-an*, French *courtis-ane*; *partis-an*, French *pertuis-ane*; *tart-an*, Medieval-Latin *tareta*. Adjectives are of course not wanting; sometimes they have the suffix *ane*: *galli-can*, French *gallic-an*; *mahomet-an*, French *-an*; *hum-an*, French *-ain*; *rom-an*; *germ-an*; *pag-an*, French *pay-en*, Latin *paganus*; *elisabeth-an*; even *elo-an* alongside of *elf-in*, *elf-ish*. Forms in *ane* are: *hum-ane*, *extramund-ane* &c.

In Irish names *an* is a frequent termination: *Eg-an, Dor-an, Flanagan-an, Skog-an* &c.

ian, French mostly *ien*, Latin *ianus*, is found chiefly in names of persons, and is particularly used of appurtenance to what the stem expresses according to occupation, station, partisanship and fellowship: *magic-ian; music-ian; physic-ian; librar-ian; traged-ian; comed-ian; histor-ian*; — *patric-ian; plebe-ian*; — *christ-ian; presbyter-ian; Socin-ian; barbar-ian* &c.; also in names of nations: *Ion-ian; Ital-ian; Arab-ian; Austr-ian; Pers-ian; Burgund-ian; Syr-ian; Scyth-ian* &c. *ian* seldom stands in names of things: *gent-ian*, Latin *gentiana*; *fust-ian*, French *futaine*, Ital. *fustagno*, from the town, Fostat or Fossat (Cairo). Adjectives, from which many names of persons are developed, are frequent: *pelusg-ian; pretor-ian; Bacon-ian; diluv-ian; campestr-ian; gregar-ian; Gregor-ian* &c.

ean, French *een*, developed from Latin *aeus* (*aeanus*) and *ēus*, mostly stands in geographical designations and party names used substantively, else adjectively, with a fluctuating accent and pronunciation. Substantives: *Europ-ēan; Chald-ēan; Sab-ēan; Manich-ēan; Pythagor-ēan; Mediūerran-ēan*. Adjectives: *marmor-ēan; cerul-ēan; cerber-ēan; Prometh-ēan; Hercul-ēan; adamant-ēan; Aug-ēan; Atlant-ēan; leih-ēan* &c.

on, ion is a usual suffix of concrete and abstract substantives, but is divided into two classes, the one referring to the Latin masculine *o, io*, the other to the feminine *io*.

on, ion, frequently also in modern words *oon*, answers to the Latin *ō, iō* (*ōnis*), as in: *fullo, histrio, leo, papilio, pulmo* &c.

It is used of persons who are occupied or affected with what the stem denotes: *mas-on*, Old-French: *maç-on, -un*, Medieval-Latin *machio*; *fel-on*, Old-French *fels, felon*; *tabell-ion; centur-ion; histr-ion; champ-ion; buff-oon; poltr-oon*; sometimes in a blamable sense: *glutt-on; simple-t-on*. A departure is *surge-on*, Old-French *surgien*. It also occurs in names of nations: *Brit-on* (Brito); *Sax-on; Gasc-on* &c.

The suffix is not seldom applied to beasts (the termination *oon* does not here occur): *mutt-on; drag-on* (on the other hand *dragon*); *stall-ion; salm-on; sturg-eon* (French *esturgeon*, Anglosaxon *styrja*); *falc-on; cap-on; pige-on* (*pip-io*) &c.

In lifeless objects the suffix occurs as commonly: *escutche-on; punche-on; donge-on; septentr-ion; pavil-ion* (from the Latin *papilio*); *ball-oon; bat-oon; pantal-oon; harp-oon; carr-oon* &c.; sometimes with an augmentative meaning: *musket-oon; sal-oon*; also with collective numbers: *mill-ion; bill-ion; tern-ion* &c.

The diminutive import of this suffix has mostly disappeared in English; compare *minion*, French *mignon*.

ion, t-ion, s-ion, s-on, French *ion, t-ion, s-ion, s-on, ç-on*, Latin *io, iōnis*, belonging originally to feminine abstract nouns derived from verbal stems, to which are added a few denominative forms, is numerously represented in English: *obliv-ion; rebell-ion; act-ion; orat-ion; lot-ion; expuls-ion; pass-ion; declens-ion; less-on; reas-on; treas-on; ars-on; advow-son*. *Fash-ion* (*façon*) also belongs here.

For *rans-om* see p. 457. *Nat-ion*; *leg-ion*; *reg-ion* &c. pass into a concrete meaning.

Suffixes in *l* have all originally a vowel before them. With the peculiarity of their treatment in French the vowel was often cast out, and with it sometimes other suffixed consonants preceding. In English the vowel has also often been lost, so that the suffix appears as a mere *l* with a glib *e* after it. The remaining vowels are also often interchanged. We here give the English suffixes classed according to the vowel preceding and along with each we treat its collateral form in *le*.

il, ile has hardly been preserved as a substantive suffix. Adjectives used substantively, French *ile*, Latin *ile* are: *utens-il*, French *utens-ile*, *ustens-ile*, Latin *utens-ilia*; *miss-ile* (weapon), Latin *miss-ile*. *Per-il*, French the same, answers to the Latin *periculum*; *pen-cil*, Latin *pen-icillum*; *sig-il*, else seal, Latin *sig-illum*.

In adjectives, on the other hand, *il, ile*, French *il, ile*, for the Latin *ilis* and *ilis*, are frequent, commonly with a short *i*: *miss-ile*; *fiss-ile*; *fert-ile*; *flex-ile*; *frag-ile*; *duct-ile*; *tons-ile*; *sess-ile*; — *serv-ile*; *civ-il*; *juven-ile*; *host-ile*; but *gent-ile*, alongside of *gent-eel*, *gent-le* with another meaning; also *ex-ile*, Latin *exilis*. Rejections of the *i, i* also occur: *humb-le*, French, the same; *stab-le*, French, the same; — *subt-le* (*subtilis*). Those in *ilis* properly expressed the passive appropriateness and ability, those in *ilis*, appurtenance and conformity, the former being derived from verbs, the latter from nouns.

el, ele in substantives takes the place of the French *èle, elle*, Lat. *ēla*: *caut-el*; *client-elle*; *quarr-el*; Old-French *querele*; with an amplified suffix: *tu-tel-age*; with the *e* cast out: *cand-le*, compare Anglosaxon *cand-el*.

It often stands for the Old-French *el, elle*, Modern-French *eau, elle*, Lat. *ellus, a, um*, as in *c-el, s-el*, for the French *c-eau, c-elle, s-eau, s-elle*; Lat. *c-ellus, a, um*: *mors-el*, Old-French *mors-el, morc-el*, Modern-French *more-eau*; *pomm-el*, Modern-French *pomm-eau*; *bow-el*, Old-French *bo-el* (*botellus*), Modern-French *boy-au*; *grav-el*, Old-French *grav-elle*; *chap-el*, French *chap-elle*; *bush-el*, Old-French *bois-el*, Modern-French *boiss-eau*, Medieval-Latin *bust-ellus*; *tunn-el*, French *tonn-elle*; — *ves-s-el*, Old-French *veis-s-el, ves-s-el* (*vas-c-ellum*) and *vais-s-elle* fem., Modern-French *vaisseau, vaisselle*; *par-c-el*, French *par-c-elle*; *dam-s-el*, Old-French *damoi-s-elle* (*domini-c-ella*); with *e* cast out: *cast-le*, Old-French *cast-el*, Modern-French *chât-eau*. While in these forms the primitive diminutive import of the suffix is extinct, it is preserved in the double suffix *er-el* or *r-el*, French *er-eau, er-elle*; comp. French *mât-er-eau*; *band-er-eau*; *saut-er-elle* &c.; *cock-er-el*; *pick-er-el* (name of fish belonging to the pike-tribe); with an ethical diminution: *mong-r-el*, also adjectives; *dott-er-el*; dialectically *gang-er-el, gang-er-al*, a vagabond (NORTH.); perhaps *gang-r-il*, a toad (IB.); without any such signification: *nuck-r-el*, a sucking foal (SUFFOLK); *gamb-r-el*, hindfoot (of a horse). *Sach-el, satch-el*, Latin *sacculus*, has been assimilated as a diminutive.

From the last must be distinguished the substantive suffix

el for the French *el*, *elle*, *al*, Latin *ālis*, *e*: *ministr-el*, Old-English *mynstr-al*, Old-French *menestr-el*, Latin *ministeri-alis*; *vou-el*, French *voy-elle*, Latin *voc-alis*; Old-English *host-el* alongside of *hospit-al*, Old-French *host-el*, *host-eus*; *jew-el*, Old-French *jo-el*, Medieval-Latin *joc-ale*; *chatt-el* alongside of *catt-le*, Old-French *chat-el*, *cat-el*, Latin *capit-ale*; *kenn-el* and *chann-el*, French *chen-al*. The termination *al* is here more frequent.

The French *eil*, *eille*, Latin *iculus*, *a*, *um* and *itis*, has sometimes assumed *el*: *appar-el*, Old-English *par-aille*, Old-French *apar-eil* (from *pariculus*); *fenn-el*, French *fen-ouil*, Latin *foen-iculum*; *marv-el*, Old-English *merv-aille*, Old-French *merv-eille*, *-oille*, *-ille*, Latin *mirab-ilia*; yet with the vowel cast out: *bott-le*, Old-French *bout-eille*, *-ille*, Medieval-Latin *but-icula*.

el also stands for the French *il*, Latin *itis*, *e*: *kenn-el*, French *chen-il*, Latin *can-ile*; *barr-el*, Modern-French *bar-il*, Old-French *bar-eil*, *-iel*, Ital. *bar-ile*.

ail, French *ail*, *aille*, is a rare suffix (see *al*): *entr-ails*, French *entr-ailles*, as it were Latin *intralia*; elsewhere *el* is also found: *trav-el*, French *trav-ail*. In *tow-el*, Old-English *towail*, French *tou-aille*, the Old-Highdutch *duahila* is contained. *a* is cast out in *batt-le*, as it were *batt-alia*.

In adjectives *el* is rare: *cru-el*, French, the same, Lat. *crud-elis*.

al is a frequent suffix of substantives and adjectives with numerous modern formations.

Substantives in *al* answer to French ones in *al*, sometimes *el*, and *aille*, Latin *ālis*, *e*; *ālia* (pl.). The suffix is originally adjective, denoting that something is proper, conformable or appurtenant to the notion of the stem. Here belong names of persons: *individu-al*, comp. French *individu-el*; *meni-al*, Old-French *meignial*, from *meignee*, *maisie*; *gener-al*; *cardin-al* &c. (The feminine *fem-ale*, French *fem-elle*, Latin *fem-ella*, does not belong here). Names of beasts rarely: *anim-al*; names of things frequently, primarily concretes: *miner-al*; *materi-al*; *tribun-al*; *journ-al*; *capit-al*; *hospit-al* &c.; abstracts, as: *sign-al*; *plur-al* &c.; *ritu-al*, French *ritu-el*; with these are associated the collectives founded upon the French *aille*, Latin *ālia* (pl.), then also abstract substantives, as: *victu-als*, French *vit-aille*, Latin *victu-alia*; *spous-als*, French *épous-ailles*, Latin *spons-alia*; *funer-al*, French *funer-ailles*, Latin *funer-alia*. The great number of abstract English substantives in particular seems formed from these, as appears by the Old-English forms: *spousaile*, *arivaile* &c.: *espi-al*; *arriv-al*; *arow-al*; *acquitt-al*; *refus-al*; *reviv-al*; *propos-al*; *buri-al*; *festic-al*; *frisk-al*; *tri-al*; *deni-al*; *dispos-al*; *cit-al*; *carous-al* &c., which, almost without exception, are derived from verbs.

Adjectives in *al* (*ial*), French *al*, often *el* (*ial*, *iel*), Latin *ālis* (*iālis*), are uncommonly frequent: *equ-al*; *liter-al*; *roy-al*; *rur-al*; *fat-al*; *vit-al*; — *etern-al*; *natur-al*; *re-al*; — *mart-ial*; *jov-ial*; — *essent-ial*; *pestilent-ial* &c.

Adjectives with the double suffix *ic-al*, which are often in use along with those in *ic*, are also frequent: *mag-ic-al*; *bibl-ic-al*; *bi-*

bliograph-ic-al; *Babylon-ic-al*; *bacch-ic-al*; *farc-ic-al*; *whims-ic-al*; *centr-ic-al*; *com-ic-al*; *lackadais-ic-al* &c.

iole, *eole*, more rarely *ol* for the French diminutive termination *iol*, *eul*, *euil* m., *iole* &c. fem., rarely *ol*, *ole*, stands in some diminutives: *alv-eole*; *fol-iole*; *glad-iole*; sometimes with the suffix *er* (r) also inserted in French: *mus-r-ole*, French *mus-er-olle*; *band-r-ol*, *bann-er-ol*, French *band-er-ole*; in *squirr-el* the termination *euil* (*écureuil*, like *sciuriolus*) has passed into *el*.

ule, *c-ule*, French *ule*, *c-ule*, Latin *ulus*, a, um; *c-ulus*, a, um has, as in French, sometimes remained unabbreviated, particularly where the original import of the diminutive termination continues perceptible: *pust-ule*; *barb-ule*; *form-ule*; *caps-ule*; *glob-ule* &c.; *animal-c-ule*; *vermi-c-ule*. Yet those in *c-ule* are, where the diminutive meaning recedes, and where *u* was cast out in French also, not only shortened into *cle*, as in *ora-cle*; *mira-cle*; *specta-cle*; *recepta-cle*; *arti-cle*; *cir-cle*; *un-cle* &c.; but also where this meaning is prominent, especially in words in *i-cle*; *auri-cle*; *ossi-cle*; *parti-cle*; *funi-cle*; *vesi-cle*; *versi-cle*; *corni-cle*; *cuti-cle*; *corpus-cle* &c.

Where the termination *ule* had shrunk into *le* in Old-French, *le* appears in English also without the character of a diminutive termination: *ang-le*; *peop-le*; *tab-le*; but also: *mandib-le*, French *mandib-ule*; *scrup-le*, French *scrup-ule* &c.

ble, French *ble*, Latin *bilis*, e, equivalent in import to the simple *ilis*, mostly = Highdutch *bar*, *sam* (see *il*); in Latin it was added to vowel stems, or, with the connecting vowel *i*, to consonantal stems. French added *able* and *ible* to noun stems also. The suffix has regularly the form *ble*, no longer *bile*, as sometimes the French and the older English, for instance *mob-ile* (SKELTON), now *mov-able*. Forms with any other vowel preceding than *i* and *a* are rare: *fee-ble* Old-French *floi-ble*, *foi-ble* (*fle-bilis*); *no-ble*; *igno-ble*; *dissolu-ble*.

ible and *able* appear as frequent suffixes, the latter whereof prevails, attaching itself especially to Germanic stems: *ed-ible*; *elig-ible*; *ris-ible*; *vis-ible*; *flex-ible*; *cess-ible*; *corrod-ible*; *corros-ible*; — *malle-able*; *navig-able*; *toler-able*; *commemor-able*; *commend-able*; *eat-able*; *market-able*; *love-able*; *lose-able*; *begg-able*; *bear-able*; *sale-able*; *know-able*. Suffixes with other vowels sometimes pass into *ible* and *able*: *indel-ible*, French *indélébile*; *peace-able*, French *pais-ible*.

The adjective suffix *ble*, *ple*, French the same, Latin *-plus*, *-plex*; is to be distinguished from this: *dou-ble*; *tre-ble*; *tri-ple* &c.

r is mostly suffixed with a vowel before it, but in some cases it takes as *re*, like *le*, the place of a suffix beginning with a vowel.

er and *ar* are unequally divided between the French suffixes *ier*, *ière*, *aire*, Latin *arius*, a, um; *aris*, e, to which *ary*, cited above, and *ier* and *eer*, mostly for names of persons, are also annexed. Some have also deviated into *or*. *Er* is often hardly to be distinguished in names of persons from the Germanic suffix *er*, Old-English *ere*, the English termination having been given to Romance words also.

Names of persons originally mostly of the masculine gender,

commonly have *er* where the French gives *ier*, the Old-French also *er*: *offic-er* (officier); *ush-er*, Old-French *ussier*; *messeng-er*, *messag-er* (messenger); *marin-er* (marinier); *prison-er* (prisonnier); *barb-er* (barbier); *butch-er* (boucher); *sorc-er-er* (sorcier); *strang-er*, Old-French *estranger*, *estrangier* &c.; instead thereof *ar* in *vic-ar* (vicaire); *burg-l-ar*, Medieval-Latin *burglarius*, *burgarius*; *burs-ar*, Medieval-Lat. *bursarius*; *Templ-ar* (Templier); *schol-ar*, Old-French *escolier* = *scholaris*. or see below. *ier*, *eer* in modern words: *arquebus-ier*; *brigad-ier*; *financ-ier*; *caval-ier*; *gondol-ier* &c.; *musket-er*; *mulet-er*; *pion-er*; *volunt-er*; *gazett-er*; *privat-er*; *circuit-er* and other imitations. Many fluctuate between *ier* and *eer*, like *bucan-ier* and *buccan-er* &c. *Squi-re*, Old-Engl. *squiere*, Old-French *esquier*, *escuier*, has *re*. A few feminine names of persons have been preserved, as *laund-er* (*lavandière*); *dowa-g-er*, Old-French *doairiere* (wherein *g* seems developed from *i*).

Names of beasts in *er* occur: *lim-er* (*limier*); *lann-er* (*lanier*); *plov-er* (*pluvier*, comp. the Old-French verb *plover*).

Names of trees and shrubs in *ier*, not rare in French, have been scarcely preserved, save in *popl-ar* (*peuplier*).

Other names of things, denoting concrete, rarely abstract objects, have been preserved with the suffixes *er*, *ar*, *ier*; they are mostly referable to forms originally neutral and feminine: *arium*, *aria*, French *ier ière*, rarely *aire*: *lard-er* (*lardier*); *litt-er* (*litière*); *riv-er* (*rivière*); *gart-er* (*jarretière*, comp. Old-French *garret* = *jarret*); *gutt-er* (*gouttière*); — *mort-ar*, Old-English *morter* (*mortier*, *mortarium*); *pill-ar*, Old-English *piler* (*pilier*, Medieval-Latin *pilare* and *pilarius*); *cell-ar* (*cellier*); *calend-ar* (*calend-r-ier*); *coll-ar*, Old-English *coler* (HALLIWELL s. v.) (*collier*, Latin *collare*); *gramm-ar* (*grammaire*); — *rap-ier* (*rapière*); *pann-ier* (*panier*); *barr-ier* (*barrière*); *front-ier* (*frontière*). Abstracts are: *mann-er* (*manière*, as it were *manuaria*); *pray-er*, Old-French *proiere*; *dang-er* (as it were *damniarium*).

The suffix *er* moreover takes the place of other suffixes in substantives, as of *ière* (Latin *ëria*): *mat-er* (*mat-ière*); of *oir*, *oirs* (Latin *orium*): *cens-er* (*encensoir*); *mang-er* (*mangeoire*, *manducatoria*); of the infinitive *er* in: *sapp-er* (*souper*). Comp.: *Justices of oyer et terminer*, *ad audiendum et terminandum*, and the like.

But the suffix *er* frequently arises from the insertion of an *e* between a consonant and *r*, whether a primitive vowel is thereby restored or not: *memb-er* (*membre*); *monst-er* (*monstre*); *cloist-er*, Old-French *cloistre*; *waf-er* (*gaufre*); *chart-er*, Old-French *chartre*, *chart-arium*; *ord-er* (*ordre*, *ord-in-em*); *numb-er* (*nombre*, *num-er-us*); *powd-er* (*poudre*, *pulv-er-em*); *cind-er* (*cendre*, *cin-er-em*); *chamb-er* (*chambre*, *cam-er-a*) &c.

In adjectives we find the derivational termination *ar*, French *aire*, *ier*, Latin *aris*, since *arius* usually passes into *ary*; occasionally this collateral form is found even here: *sublun-ar*, *sublun-ary*. Both frequently interchange, even in Latin. Old-English sometimes has *er*: *syngul-er* (PIERS PLOUGHM.); Modern-English *singul-ar*; *regular*; *pol-ar*; *popul-ar*; *famil-er*; *vulg-ar*; *triangul-ar*; *simil-ar*; *navicul-ar*, with many imitations.

The diminutive suffix *aster*, French *âtre*, Latin *aster*: *poet-aster*; *ole-aster*, is rare.

or, *our*, and *t-or*, Latin *t-or* and *s-or*, Modern-French *eur* and *t-eur*, *s-eur*, occasionally *t-re*. In Old-French *t* was often thrown out, so that in the nom. sing. *eres*, *erres* in the oblique cases *eor*, *our* appeared instead of *ator*. In Old-English the suffix often sounded *our*, which is lost in Modern-English. In imitated forms *or* is regarded absolutely as a suffix, as in French; words in *tor* have been received immediately from the Latin. This suffix of the Latin supine denotes persons exercising the activity contained in the stem: *auth-or*; *trait-or*, Old-French *traîtres*, traitor; *ancest-or*, Old-French *ancestre*, ancestor; *success-or*; *predecess-or*; *credit-or*; *orat-or*; *testat-or*; *tut-or*; *govern-or*; *tail-or*, Old-French *tailleres*, *tailleur*; *grant-or*; *conquer-or*; *appell-or*; *jur-or*; *bargain-or* &c. The form *saviour* rests upon the Old-French *salvies*, *saveor*. — Rarely forms of this sort have passed into *er*, as *paint-er*, from the French *peint-re*; or into *eer*, as *engin-eer*, Old-French *engigner*, *engigneor*, where the nominative is the standard. Conversely, many in *er* (*arius*) has passed into *or*: *warri-or*, Old-French *guerrier*, yet also *guerreiur*, *guerreur*, (like *counsell-or*, Old-French *conseilleres*, *conseilleor*, Modern-French *conseiller*); *chancell-or*, Old-French *chancelier*; *propriet-or*, French *propriétaire*; *bachel-or* (*bachelier*, *baccalarius*), Old-English *bachelor* &c.; as even Germanic ones: *sail-or*, Old-English *sailer*; Old-English *robb-our*, Modern-English *robber*; Old-English *minour*, Modern-English *miner* &c.

or, *our*, of which *our* is preferred, except in modern words, although without agreement, Modern-French *eur*, sometimes *our*, Latin *or*, *oris*, is a suffix originally added to verbal stems, in French also to adjectives and participles, and denoted the activity contained in verbal stems, abstractedly, but especially as a condition or quality: *flav-our*; *vap-our*; *col-our*; *clam-our*; *hon-our*; *hum-our*; often as distinct from *hum-or* (moisture); *splend-or*; *tum-or*; *liqu-or* &c.; some of which have passed into a concrete meaning. Imitations are *demean-our* (from *demener*); *behavi-our* (from *behave*).

From this suffix is to be distinguished that which sometimes takes the place of the French *oir*, Latin *erium*, *orium*: *man-or* (*manoir*, Medieval-Latin *manerium*); *parl-or* (*parloir*); Old-English *dort-our* (*dortoir*), in Bacon, *dorture*; *mirr-or* (*miroir*, as it were *miratorium*); *raz-or* (*rasoir*); *sciss-ors* (imitated). Another derivation is *arm-our*, Old-French *armeure*, *armure*, *armatura*; *vis-or* (*visière*) = *vizard*.

ior, French *ieur*, the Latin comparative termination, is found in some adjectives, sometimes also used substantively: *infer-ior*; *exter-ior*; *sen-ior* &c.

ure (*t-ure*, *s-ure*), French *ure*, Latin *ura*. This suffix of the supine, which denotes the abstract activity, but also its concrete result, was sometimes annexed to verbal stems not belonging to the supine (*fig-ura*), but was added in French, as *ure* and *ture*, to noun stems also. In *at-ura* Old-French also cast out the *t*; hence *armeure*, *engendreure*. Old-English *engendr-ure*. Abstracts, which moreover partly become also concrete, are: *nuri-*

ure; *tort-ure*; *depart-ure*; *capt-ure*; *gest-ure*; *expos-ure*; *cens-ure*; *waft-ure*; *moist-ure* &c.; concrete: *apert-ure*; *nat-ure* (also abstract); *pict-ure*; *furnit-ure*; *vest-ure*; *garnit-ure*; *verd-ure*; *ord-ure* &c. Those which have diverged into this form are: *leis-ure*, Old-English leiser, Old-French loisir, leisir; *pleas-ure*, Old-French plaisir, pleisir; also *treas-ure*, Old-French tresor, Old-English tresoure, and Old-English lang-ure (MAUNDEV.) instead of longuor, as, reversely *arm-our*, instead of armure. *Grand-eur* retains the French form.

- 2) Lipsounds are of slight moment; only *v* (*f*) needs to be considered.

ive, rarely *iff*, French *if*, *ive*, Latin *ivus*, *a*, *um*, Old-English frequently *if*, is properly an adjective termination. It denotes the inclination and capacity for the activity signified by the stem, or the condition or quality answering to the notion of the stem, and occurs in forms used substantively, and in adjectives, rarely with the old spelling *iff*, by which a substantive is sometimes distinguished from an adjective. Comp. *plaint-iff* and *plaint-ive*. Names of persons used substantively are: *nat-ive*; *representat-ive*; *capt-ive*; *plaint-iff*; *cait-iff*, Old-French caitif; *bail-iff*, also baily, Medieval-Latin ballivus; the name of a beast: *rest-iff* (stubborn horse); various names of things: *alternat-ive*; *mot-ive*; *narrat-ive*; *purgat-ive*; *prerogat-ive*; *diminut-ive* &c. Most still occur as adjectives, along with many others: *instruct-ive*; *extens-ive*; *abus-ive*; *act-ive*; *offens-ive*; *primit-ive*; *destruct-ive*; *comprehens-ive*; *rest-iff*; *cait-iff* &c. Many have passed into *y*, as in French partly into *i*: *joll-y*, Old-English jol-if, Old-French joli, -ive; *hast-y*, Old-English hastif, Old-French, the same. Conversely, the Old-English often has *gilt-if*, *gelt-if*, for *guilt-y*, Anglosaxon *gylt-ig*. Among the imitations is *talk-at-ive*, with the insertion of an apparent supine termination in *at-um*.

- 3) Of extensive efficiency are the toothsounds, of which, besides *t*, *d* and *s*, the dental *c* and *g* also need consideration,

t primarily stands as the final sound in the two primitive diminutive suffixes *et*, more rarely *ot*, French *et* (*at*), *ot*, *-e*, which, as such, were foreign to the Anglosaxon, invaded English from the French, and have been added even to Anglosaxon stems. Here *et* has partly taken the place of *at* and *ot*. In the diminutive meaning many substantives appear, especially in *et*: *isl-et* (ilot); *lapp-et*; *pock-et*; *frisk-et* (frisquette); *banner-et*; *coron-et* (inferior crown); *cabin-et*; *circl-et*; Names of young beasts: *eagl-et* (aiglat); *marmos-et*; *lever-et* (levrette, from levrier); *pork-et*; *pull-et*, along with *poul-t*; *cygn-et*; and proper names as originally petnames: *Beck-et* (little brook); *Grav-et* (little grove); *Wilm-et*, also *Charl-otte*; and *Ad-c-et* (little Ade, Adam); *Al-c-et* (Arthur); *Wil-k-et* (William); *Hi-ck-et* (Henry), wherein *c*, *k*, answer to the *k* in *Wil-k-in* &c., and which are corrupted into *Accock*, *Wilcock*, *Hickock*. Another diminutive suffix is frequently inserted, especially *l*, *el*, as is the case in *circlet* (circ-ul-us); *leaf-l-et*; *ring-l-et*; *fort-l-et*; *branch-l-et*; *trout-l-et*; *stream-l-et*; *gob-l-et* (cup-ell-a).

The diminutive import is frequently lost, as in French: *mall-et*;

linn-et; *lock-et*; *banqu-et*; *budg-et*; *fresh-et* (a fresh); *helm-et*; *gorg-et*; *gaunt-l-et*; *ball-et*; *fagg-et*; *gali-et*; *chari-et* &c. Modern forms are the terms for materials according to a constituent, (with a base) as *sulphur-et*. Compare the French *anis-ette*. Occasionally the suffix works disparagingly: *flor-et* (imperfect flower); *gigl-et* (girl of light manners); perhaps also in *strump-et*.

From this suffix we must discriminate *et*, Latin *ēta*, *ētes*, Greek ἑτης: *com-et*, *plan-et*, and Latin *ētum*: *arbor-et*, Latin *arboretum* = *arbuſtum*.

Adjectives of the diminutive form in *et* are rare: *dulc-et*; *russ-et*.

t moreover appears as a noun-suffix, alone or in the combinations *ite* (*it*), *ete*, *ute*, which are referable to the Latin participial forms *-tus*, *itus*, *ītus*, *ētus*, *ātus*, *ūtus*, and adjective forms formed after them from substantives (*cristātus*, *auritus*). Adjectives are frequent: *erect-t*; *extinct-t*; *rap-t*; *perfect-t*; *corrupt-t*; *infin-ite*; *exquisite*; *defin-ite*; — *oppos-ite*; *decrep-it*; — *comple-te*; — *elev-ate*; *effemin-ate*; *priv-ate*; — *absol-ute*; *min-ute*; *destit-ute*. Imitations from nouns end especially in *ate* and *ute*: *labi-ate*; *lunul-ate*; *dent-ate*; *crist-ate*; often with the Germanized collateral from *ated*: *labia-ated*; *dentated*; *cristated* &c.; *delic-ate* (*deliciae*) — *nas-ute*; *hirs-ute*.

Forms of this sort used substantively mostly answer to the masculine or the neuter gender of the Latin. In names of persons the forms in *ate*, rarely others appear: *intim-ate*; *advoc-ate*; *potent-ate*, Medieval-Latin *potentatus*; *favour-ite*. More frequent are names of things as primitive neuters: *insec-t*; *edic-t*; *manuscrip-t*; *precep-t*; — *un-it*; — *mer-it*; *cred-it*; — *mand-ate*; *duplic-ate*; often in modern scientific expressions, as: *nitr-ate*; *sulph-ate*; *carbon-ate*; *hydr-ate* &c.; — *trib-ute*; *attrib-ute* &c.

From these we must distinguish the few words in *t*, *ite*, *ate*, Latin *tus*, *itus*, *atus*, according to the fourth declension: *frui-t*; falsely formed, *ascen-t* (*ascensus*); *appet-ite*; among which those in *ate* are particularly to be noted, which are referred to office and station, sometimes also to the domain subject to a dignitary: *elector-ate*; *episcop-ate*; *magistr-ate*; *princip-ate*; *cardinal-ate*; *consul-ate*; *colib-ate*.

Of the Latin-Greek gentile names in *ita*, *ela*, *ata*, *ota*, Greek ἰτης, ἡτης, ἀτης, ὠτης, those in *ite*, French *ite* have been particularly preserved: *israel-ite*; *Shem-ite*; *Canaan-ite*; *Slagir-ite*; *Jacob-ite*; *carmel-ite*; with a shortened *i* in *Jesu-it*. Mineralogy and Chemistry form words, as *braun-ite*; *byssol-ite*; *dry-ite*; *sulph-ite*; *webster-ite*; *hydrargill-ite* &c. as terms for substances. *Satell-ite* on the other hand rests upon the Latin *satell-item*. Of those in *ot* *idi-ot*; *patri-ot*; *Cypri-ot* occur; many have passed into other suffixes. The suffix borders on the meaning of *ist* in Jacobite; Jesuit.

ent and *ant*, French *ent*, *ant*, Latin *ent-em*, *ant-em*, in which however sometimes the original Latin form, sometimes the French form is the standard, are properly participial terminations, which partly occur used substantively, partly as adjectives.

Used substantively they yield names of persons, which are in part of both genders, *ent*, *ant*: *adher-ent*; *ag-ent*; *reg-ent*;

presid-ent; *stud-ent*; *cli-ent*; — *inhabit-ant*; *mendic-ant*; *merch-ant*; *defend-ant*; *descend-ant*; *depend-ant* (distinguished from the adjective *depend-ent*); *serv-ant*; *serje-ant* &c. In *brig-and*, according to the French precedent, *d* appears instead of *t*; as the name of a beast: *serp-ent*.

Names of things, partly concrete, partly abstract, point to all three Latin genders, yet most rarely to the feminine: *torr-ent*; *curr-ent* (*courant*); *ingredi-ent*; *astring-ent* (medicine); *ori-ent*; *occid-ent*; *sec-ant*; *accid-ent*; *incid-ent*; *sembl-ant* (show, obsolete) &c. Adjectives, some whereof are also to be met with among substantives, are very familiar: *innoc-ent*; *emin-ent*; *adjac-ent*; *urg-ent*; *lat-ent*; *pati-ent*; *belliger-ent* (*belligérant*); — *eleg-ant*; *arrog-ant*; *protuber-ant*; *brilli-ant*; *verd-ant*; *vah-ant*; *triumph-ant*; *conson-ant* &c.

In *ungu-ent* the suffix *entum* (*unguentum*) lies at the root.

ment, French *ment*, Latin *mentum*, is the frequent substantive termination, which is met with in abstract and concrete substantives, (among them many recent forms) and is added to verbal stems, although in English sometimes apparently to nouns, but whose denominative verbs are at the foundation (*case-ment*; *ship-ment*). It denotes the activity or the condition which the verbal notion qualified: *imprison-ment*; *endow-ment*; *enchant-ment*; *ease-ment* (relief); *employ-ment*; *abate-ment*; *agree-ment*; *punish-ment*; *comport-ment*; *bereave-ment*; *bewitch-ment*; *forebode-ment*; *fulfil-ment* &c. Concrete objects appear partly as means for effecting the activity contained by the verbal stem: *oini-ment*; *orna-ment*; *liga-ment*; *pig-ment*; *pave-ment*; *fer-ment*; *gar-ment* (French *garne-ment*); partly as such as are effected by means of the activity: *frag-ment* (a piece which has arisen through breaking); *seg-ment*; *filament* (spun). In *parch-ment* a change of termination of the Old-French *parcamin*, *parchemin*, Old-English *parchemyn*, is contained.

lent, French *lent*, Latin *lentus*, *a*, *um* and *lens*, is an adjective suffix, whereby the being affected in a high degree with what is contained in the stem is denoted: *escu-lent*; *opu-lent*; *maci-lent*; *mucu-lent*; *lutu-lent*; *lucu-lent*; *vio-lent*; *floru-lent*, also *floscu-lent* (imitated); *turbu-lent*; *somno-lent* &c., which almost all belong to Latin.

ist, French *iste*, Latin *ista*, Freek *ist*, is a suffix whereby names of persons are formed. It denotes the person continuously engaged, externally or internally, in what is predicated by the stem. It is therefore applied to persons occupied with an art, science or trade, as: *art-ist*; *latin-ist*; *pian-ist*; *pugil-ist*; *psalmod-ist*; *botan-ist*; *flor-ist*; *copy-ist*; *lour-ist*; *mechan-ist*; *tabacco-n-ist* (with *n* inserted) &c.; likewise to those attached to a party or to definite principles, as: *Jansen-ist*; *monarch-ist*; *royal-ist*; *destin-ist*; *quiet-ist*; *charl-ist* &c.; sometimes with an admixture of censure: *egot-ist*; *exclusion-ist*; *manner-ist*; *de-ist*; *devotion-ist*; whence also *bigam-ist*, *provincial-ist*; *proverbial-ist*. The allied suffix *ist* is rarer: *enthusiast*; *encom-ist*.

d appears in the adjective termination *id*, French *ide*, Lat. *idus*. It denotes that the notion of the stem inheres in an object

as a quality in a higher degree or measure. The stem is a verb and sometimes a noun: *intrep-id*; *insip-id*; *ac-id*; *mad-id*; *morb-id*; *langu-id*; *tur-id*; *rig-id*; *putr-id*; *flacc-id*; *viv-id*; *turb-id*; *splend-id*; *cand-id*; *hisp-id*; *herb-id* &c. Imitations are wanting. Words in *id* are sometimes used substantively, as, *liqu-id*; *flu-id*.

From this we must distinguish the termination *id*, which is employed substantively, yet also adjectively by the language of the physical sciences, and answers to the Greek εἶδος, Latin *ides*: *alkalo-id*; *chloro-id* &c.; also *id*, French *ide*, Greek Latin *is*, *idis*: *Nereid*; *Aeneid*.

ade, seldom *ad*, French *ade*, Latin *ata*, fem., which appears along with the French *ée*, under the influence of the Ital. *ada*, is found as a suffix, especially in substantives denoting a collective notion: *palis-ade*; *balustr-ade*; *barric-ade*; *brig-ade*; *cavalc-ade*; *cas-ade*; *colonn-ade*; similarly in *lemon-ade*; *orange-ade*. Abstract ones are: *par-ade*; *promen-ade*; *block-ade*; *seren-ade*. It is shortened into *ad* in *sal-ad*.

To the Greek and Latin feminine suffix *as*, *adis*, French *ade*, belongs *ad*, rarely *ade*, in: *myri-ad*; *mon-ad*; *tri-ad*; *tetr-ad*; *dec-ade*. Of masculine names of persons in *as*, *adis*, *nom-ad* belongs here; of the feminine: *Nai-ad*.

tude, French *tude*, Latin *tudo*, commonly with the connecting vowel *i*: *itude*, a suffix added to adjective stems, denotes the abstract quality, seldom passing into the collective notion, as in *mutti-tude*. Comp.: *atti-tude* (aptitudo); *lippi-tude*; *lati-tude*; *longi-tude*; *beati-tude*; *forti-tude*! *sollici-tude* &c.

bund (bond) and *cund*, French *bond*, *-e*, *cond*, *-e*, Latin *bundus*, *a*, *um*; *cundus*, *a*, *um*, two adjective suffixes to verbal stems, both denoting the being continuously or strongly occupied with the activity predicated by the verbal stem, are preserved in a few words: *mori-bund*; *vaga-bond*, both also used substantively; — *rubi-cund*; *fe-cund*; *fa-cund*; *jo-cund*; *vere-cund*.

s is often mixed in Romance suffixes of English, as in French, with the dental *c*, whence the two sounds are not to be separated from each other, so far as both rest upon a Latin *c* and *t* which became subsequently dental.

ice, *is*, answers to the French *ice*, *is*, Latin *icius*, *icium* and *itius*, *itium* in names of persons and things, yet the form *is* is almost extinct. Names of persons are: *nov-ice*; *apprent-ice*, Old-English *prent-is*. Concrete names of things from the Latin *icius*, *-um* are extremely rare, as: *abat-is*, French, the same; *trellis*, French *treillis*, Latin *trichila*; *latt-ice*, French *latt-is*; *crev-ice* has diverged from *crev-asse*; *prejud-ice* is abstract. Those originally ending in *itium* are: *precip-ice*; *serv-ice*; *hosp-ice*. Compounds like *edi-fice*; *ori-fice* &c. do not belong here. *Exerc-ise* has passed into the feminine form of abstract nouns.

In some words *ice*, French *ice* answers to the Latin termination *ex*, *icis*; *ix*, *icis*: *chal-ice*, Old-French *calice*, Anglos. *calic*; *matr-ice*, Latin *matricem*; *pum-ice*, Latin *pumicem*.

ice with the collateral form *ise*, and *ise*, also *ess* (*es*), French *ice*, *ise*, *esse*, Old-French *ece*, Latin *itia* und *ities*, serve originally to

form abstract substantives from adjectives: *avar-ice*; *mal-ice*; *not-ice*; *franch-ise*; *just-ice*; *coward-ice*, Old-English cowardise, -ie, Old-French coardise, -ie; obsolete *palliard-ise*; *covet-ise*. — *warrant-ise* (SHAKESPEARE, see SMART); *merchand-ise*; Old-English *niggard-ise*; — *larg-ess*, formerly *nobl-ess* and others; *rich-es*. Many have been abandoned; among other imitated forms are *pract-ice*; *treat-ise*. A feminine name of persons in *itia* is *Lett-ice* (Laetitia).

ass, *ace*, French *as*, m.; *ace*, *asse*, fem., Latin *aceus*, *a*, *um*, forms substantives, partly denoting variation, or operates augmentatively: *embarr-ass* (embarras); *cutl-ass* (coutelas); *cuir-ass* (cuirasse); *grim-ace*, French, the same; *popul-ace*, French, the same; *terr-ace*, French *terr-asse*.

The suffix is mingled with others: *fourn-ace* (fournaise, from *for-nax* or *fornacea*?), *men-ace*, French, the same, Latin *minaciae*. — Rarely *acy* runs parallel to *ace*: *popul-acy*. In other words *acy* is to be divided *a-cy*. (See above.)

ese, French *ais*, *ois*, Latin *ensis*, has been preserved in some names of nations, in part also used adjectively: *Malt-ese*; *Portugu-ese*; *Chin-ese*; *Japan-ese* &c.

For *ess* as a feminine suffix see p. 251.

ous and *ose*, Old-French *os*, *ous*, Modern-French *eux*, more rarely *our* and *ose*, Latin *osus*, *a*, *um*, an adjective suffix, added to substantive stems, and expressing the affection in a high degree or the being replete with what the stem denotes, is uncommonly extensive in English, and in modern formations frequently takes the place of other suffixes, particularly of the Latin *us* after vowels, but also after consonants, when the characteristic import of the suffix is often lost. The form *ous* is the most frequent: *aque-ous*; *monstr-ous*; *nause-ous*; *lumin-ous*; *fabul-ous*; *furi-ous*; *call-ous*; *covet-ous*; *hide-ous*; — *mischiev-ous*; *murder-ous*; *wondr-ous* &c.; — *ob-ri-ous*; *spuri-ous*; *errone-ous*; *corne-ous*; *conspicu-ous*; *contigu-ous*; *credul-ous*; *barbar-ous*; *fulv-ous* &c.; *scurril-ous* (Latin *scurrilis*); *illustri-ous* (*illustris*) &c. The form *ose* sometimes interchanges with *ous*, as in: *varic-ose*; *aqu-ose*; *calcul-ose* &c, but is frequently the sole one in use: *bellic-ose*; *verb-ose*; *rug-ose*; *joc-ose* and others.

ence, *ance*, French *ence*, *ance*, Latin *entia*, *antia*, are substantive suffixes in words which have been developed from the original participial terminations *ent*, *ant*, and whose collateral forms in *ency*, *ancy* are mentioned above at p. 455. They give rise to abstract nouns, in which the verbal notion receives the meaning of a continuous quality or of a condition, rarely concrete substantives. Modern formations prefer *ance*: *indig-ence*; *innoc-ence*; *experi-ence*; *occurr-ence*; *penit-ence*; *consequ-ence*; *consci-ence*; — *ignor-ance*; *entr-ance*; *admitt-ance*; *repent-ance*; *griev-ance* (Old-French *greivance*); *forbidit-ance*; *forbear-ance*; *hindr-ance*; *yield-ance* &c. Concrete ones are, for example, *rom-ance*; *subst-ance*; *ordn-ance* (cannon) &c. — *Ence* has passed into *ense* in the substantive *lic-ense*.

age, French *age*, Latin *aticum*, is a substantive suffix proceeding from the Latin adjective suffix, which early became very familiar to French and in Medieval-Latin was rendered by *agium*. Sub-

stantives with this suffix proceed from the most different parts of speech, are both concrete and abstract, and their suffix expresses in a broad sense appurtenance to the stem.

Concrete objects are: *ris-age*; *carri-age*; *saus-age* (from *sau-cisse*); *cabb-age*, from the Medieval-Latin *gabusia*, French *cabus*; there are but few which do not denote a locality, as: *vill-age*; *vicar-age*; *cott-age*; *hermit-age*; or assume a collective meaning, as *cellar-age*; *lugg-age*; *bagg-age*; *fraught-age* (SHAKESPEARE); *float-age*; *plum-age*; *band-age*; *cord-age* &c.; to which we may also refer names of victuals, as: *pott-age*; *supp-age*. In *person-age*, which is referred to the person, it is augmentative. It often denotes the yield of a thing, or the product of an activity: *mile-age*; *lact-age*; *post-age*; *full-age*; *gain-age*; *keel-age* (duty paid for entering port); *consul-age* &c.

In an abstract sense it denotes partly the activity which its verbal stem expresses, or which is connected by its noun stem: *mar-ri-age*; *langu-age*; *broker-age*; *foster-age*; *roy-age*; *till-age*; *carn-age*; *coin-age*; *hom-age* &c.; or the quality and the condition or station of the stem: *cour-age*; *apprentis-age*; *peer-age*; *baron-age*; *baronet-age*; *bond-age*; whence collectives may be again developed.

In a few names of persons we must go back to *aticus*, as in: *sar-age*; *host-age* (Medieval-Latin *hostagius*, *ostaticus* = *obsidiaticus*).

Adjectives hardly exist, as: *sav-age*.

In a few substantives this suffix meets the French *age*, Lat. *ago*: *im-age*; *cartil-age*.

4) Throat-sounds hardly need to be considered in derivation.

ic, French *ique*, Latin *icus*, *a*, *um* (Greek *ικός*), is properly an adjective suffix, denoting particularly appurtenance, and runs in Modern-English *ic*. Old-English *ike*, where the French presents *ique*: *aul-ic*; *rust-ic*; *publ-ic*; *babylon-ic*; *fran-cic*; *celt-ic*; *bard-ic*; *fantast-ic*; *frant-ic*; *caust-ic*; *gener-ic* &c.; it has also been preserved in the form *atic* (comp. *age*): *aqu-atic*; *fan-atic*; *system-atic*; *hanse-atic* &c. The adjective forms often have the above mentioned collateral form in *ical*. Joined to substantive forms the termination appears not only in names of persons, as: *la-ic*; *domest-ic*; *cyn-ic*; *cathol-ic*, *asthm-atic*; *lun-atic* &c., answering to the Latin in *icus*, but also in names of things, which presuppose a neuter *icum*, as: *celt-ic*; *gael-ic*; *ton-ic*; or which are referable to the feminine *ica*: *arithmet-ic*; *mus-ic*; *phys-ic*; *phys-ic*, and other plural terms of sciences, *mathem-atics* &c.; *fabr-ic* and others.

ic, French *ique*, Latin *icus*, is very rare, as in *pud-ic*; *ant-ique*, which belongs here, has preserved the French form, alongside of *ant-ic*, with a different meaning.

iac, French *iaque*, Latin *iacus* (Greek *ιαός*), a termination nearly allied to the last, is found in a few forms, commonly too in personal terms used substantively: *il-iac*; *man-iac*; *syr-iac*; *simon-iac* and the like.

esque, French *esque*, with which the Latin *iscus* (*syrisus*) may be compared, is an adjective suffix, transferred from the Italian *esco* into French, and which at once gives substantive forms and denotes derivation or variation. It has penetrated in some

measure into English: *mor-esque*; *roman-esque*; *pictur-esque*; *burl-esque*; *grot-esque* &c., and also uses some forms substantively, as *burlesque*.

2) Derivational Suffixes of the Verb.

The verbal derivation of the Romance constituent of the English tongue attaches itself immediately to the French process, which practised the Latin manner of derivation of words, not merely from primitive, but also from derivative nouns, by means of weak conjugational forms, and with still greater freedom.

In French we find nearly all noun suffixes over again in verbs. English could hardly extend this mode of forming words, with regard to the sort of suffixes, although it has considerably augmented the number of verbs which have thus arisen. Here, where, after the rejection of the Romance inflective terminations of the verb, the pure noun stem remains standing, only a few suffixes of the noun are missed in the verb, among which the substantive and adjective ones in *y*, as: *ty*, *cy*, *ity*, *ency*, *ancy*, *ery*, *ary*, *ory* and the less usual ones, as *tude* and the like, may be especially reckoned, although the language scorns a fixed limit in this respect.

Here therefore only the derivation of verbs from verbs, as well as that from nouns with particular verbal suffixes, has a particular interest as to the formation of words.

A) Verbs derived from verbs.

Latin-formed verbs denoting the persistence or repetition of the activity (intensive and frequentative verbs) from primitives by the suffix *t* and *s* of the first conjugation in *tare*, *sare*: *sal-tare*, *pren-sare*. In their formation they lean formally upon the supine and the passive participle agreeing with it. French imitated a multitude of forms of this sort, often with the abandonment of the intensive meaning, in connection with participial forms, and English adopted these and augmented their number. Hence verbs in *t*, *te*, *ss*, *se* (*x*, *sh* in contractions), as: *trea-t*, French *traï-ter*, Latin *trac-tare*; *no-te*, French *no-ter*, Latin *no-tare*; *profes-s*, French *profes-ser*; *ra-se*, *era-se*, French *ra-ser*; *u-se*, *ab-use*, *misu-se*, French *u-ser*, *abu-ser*; *disper-se*, French *disper-ser*; *fix*, French *fixer*; *push*, French *pous-ser*, Latin *pul-sare*. English imitations: *uni-te*; *comple-te*; *promo-te*; *pollu-te*; *preven-t*; *asser-t*; *combust*; *corrupt*; *inflict*; *act*; *instruc-t*; *dismiss*; *agress*; *posse-s*; *percus-s*; *confuse*; *elapse*; *perple-x* and many more.

English goes a step further in this, forming from the supine or participle of the perfect of the first weak conjugation of the Latin a numerous class of verbs, to which neither Latin nor French gave any support. They arise from verbs of every kind, and in them *ate* appears as a particular verbal suffix, which has even been applied to modern formations (without any presupposed verb): *indurate*; *enerv-ate*; *expatri-ate*; *migr-ate*; *navig-ate*; *renov-ate*; *perme-ate*; *procre-ate*; *devast-ate*; *castr-ate*; *captiv-ate* &c. — *impan-ate*; *insolate*; *emargin-ate*; *emascul-ate*; *edulcor-ate*, *diplom-ate* &c. — Even

French participial forms give verbs: *oin-t*; *poin-t*; *pain-t*; *prin-t*; *fain-t*; *tain-t*; *counterfei-t*; *clo-se* &c.

The suffix *it* gave Latin frequentatives in *it-are* (ag-itare), some of which were also derived from nouns (periclitari). Verbs of this sort have been preserved in English, as partly in French, but they have at the same time assumed *ate*: *ag-itate*; *palp-itate*; *hes-itate*; *periclit-itate*; *facil-itate*; *debil-itate*; *nobil-itate* &c.

Other suffixes coincide with Anglosaxon ones, as *le*, French *ler*, *ailler* (ulare, aculare), which is contained, for instance, in *amb-le* (ambler, ambulare); *tremb-le*; *troub-le*; *scribb-le* (écrivailleur); or, like the French *eter*, *oter*, *onner*, *asser*, they are no longer considered as self-standing suffixes in the derivation of verbs.

But here belongs the suffix *ish*, Old-English *ise*, *ice*, *ishe*, *ish*, Old-Scottish *is*, *eis*, even *es*, *ische*, which has arisen from the French *iss*, Latin *isc* (esc), but in French rarely appeared in the infinitive of verbs (see below), yet still exists in forms of the verb in *ir* (fin-iss-ons, fin-iss-ais &c.). In Old-French this suffix was also inserted in other verbs and verbal forms than in Modern-French. Moreover *sc* with *i*, *e*, *a* appeared even in Latin in verbs derived from nouns. It originally gave to the verb an inchoative meaning, which however was quite disregarded in French. In English *ish* mostly appears in verbs in which Modern-French still usually employs *iss*: *impover-ish*, comp. French *appauvrir*; *embell-ish*; *establi-ish*; *abol-ish*; *accompl-ish*; *nour-ish*; *langu-ish*; *replen-ish* (plen-ish), Old-French *replenir*; *per-ish*; *pol-ish*; *pun-ish*; *burn-ish*; *bland-ish*; *brand-ish*; *fin-ish*; *furn-ish*; *van-ish*, compare French *évanouir*; *tarn-ish*; *demol-ish*; *cher-ish*; *garn-ish* &c. Yet the suffix is also put to other Romance verbal stems, as *aston-ish*, Old-French *estoner*, Old-English *astonen*; *publ-ish* (publier); *vangu-ish* (vaincre); *dimin-ish* (diminuer); *distinguish-ish* (distinguer), hence also *extingu-ish*; *admon-ish*, compare Old-French *amonester*, also Old-English *amoneste*; and to Latin ones, as: *fam-ish* (fames); *relinqu-ish* (relinquere) and the like. In *rejoice* it has been mutilated, Old-English *rejoisse* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 324.). Other forms, as *angu-ish*, Old-French *angoisser*, from *angustia*, do not belong here. See also *ize* at the end.

In French we find *esc* in *acquiescer*, whereas an infinitive termination *cir* has elsewhere been formed from *escere*, as in *noir-cir* (nigrescere). In English *esce* likewise sometimes stands, as in: *acqui-esce*; *efferv-esce*; *intum-esce*; *efflor-esce*; *deliqu-esce* and other modern verbs.

B) Verbs derived from nouns.

Verbs of this sort sometimes presented the suffixes *ic*, *ig* in Latin, which came between the stem and the termination, although the suffix *ic* already belonged to some nouns from which verbs were derived (comp. *fabrica*, *fabricare*). French represented verbs of this sort partly by *iquer*, *iguer*, *iger*, partly by *cher*, *ger*, *ier*, *ayer*, *oyer* &c.

English has developed therefrom verbs in *icate* and *igate*: *commun-icate*; *mit-igate*; *nav-igate*; *fun-igate*; *cast-igate*, along with *chastise*, French *châtier*, Old-English *chastien*; and in some verbs has leaned upon abridged French forms, as *for-ge* (forger = fabri-

care); *jud-ge* (juger = judicare); *char-ge* (charger = caricare). In *icare* also, French *ier*, *oier*, the *i*, as in other verbs has been preserved as *y* after the rejection of the termination: *carr-y*, Old-French *carier*, *charier*, *caroier* &c., comp. *marr-y* (*marier*, *maritare*); *var-y* (*varier*); *remed-y* (*remédier*); *cand-y* (*candir*); *accompan-y* (*accompagner* = *acompaniare*), see p. 161. In verbs with an *ic* of the stem, as in those compounded with *ficare*, *-plicare*, French *-fier*, *-plier*, *ŷ* appears: *mystify*, *justify*, *apply*, *multiply* &c.; a termination, which we see transferred to others in *ier*, *éer*, and even *er* (are): *defy* (*defier*, Ital. *disfidare*, from *fides*); *supply* (*suppléer* = *supplere*); *occupy* (*occuper*).

ize, and sometimes *ise*, French *iser*, Latin *issare*, also *izare* (Greek $\zeta\epsilon\omega$) is a frequent derivational termination of denominative verbs. In French it gained a wide extension, appearing in intransitive and transitive verbs, as in English, where it yields many modern forms.

In intransitive verbs (which moreover become also in part transitive) the suffix denotes the setting in notion in the sense or in the measure of the person or thing denoted by the stem: *epicur-ize*; *moral-ize*; *poet-ize*; *fratern-ize*; *tempor-ize*; — perhaps too the producing or the obtaining of the object, denoted by the stem: *dent-ize*.

Transitive verbs often have a factitive import: *natural-ize*; *real-ize*; *fertil-ize*; *general-ize*; *civil-ize*; *human-ize*; *oxyd-ize*; *bitumin-ize*; *pulver-ize*; *crystall-ize*; *epitom-ize*; *substantial-ize*; *devil-ize* (B. HALL).

The verb also becomes the expression of the activity brought about by the stem, as in: *exorc-ize*; *subsid-ize*; *cauter-ize*.

Lastly verbs of this sort may denote an activity, in which the stem is the mark of the agent: *tyrann-ize*.

Verbs in *ise*, are modern collateral forms of those in *ish*, French *ir*, as *franch-ise*, *enfranch-ise*, *affranch-ise*, *eclairc-ise*, although they resemble Old-English ones.

B) Compounding.

Compounding consists in the combination of two words perceptible by themselves, comprehended in a notional and vocal unity under one acute accent. A compound word may enter into another compound, as in: *handkerchief*, *ale-house-keeper*, *gooseberry-wine*, *disembark*, *pocket-handkerchief*. Words of this sort are termed *Decomposites*.

The words comprised under one acute accent form, properly speaking, one verbal body, and should accordingly be represented as such in writing. In English however this happens by no means always or uniformly. While, on the one hand, this union is denoted by the written language, as in: *mankind*, *husband*, *earthquake*, *sunset* &c., the notional comprehension is, in many compound words, signified by a hyphen, as in: *Anglo-Saxon*, *sea-coast*, *death-bed*, *moon-calf* &c., or the uniting is left to the reader, as in Byron: *Beyond his palace walls*. Till *summer heats* were down. The *midnight festival*.

Thy birth planet. To some mountain palace &c. The last loose manner of compounding is not distinguished in effect from the others, but is particularly in use where historically propagated combinations of words, already stereotyped, do not occur.

The compound word, as a simple notion, is as capable as other simple words, of yielding derivative forms and of assuming derivational suffixes: *gospel*, Anglosaxon *godspell*, *evangelium*: to *gospel*, Anglosaxon *godspelljan*, *evangelizare*; *harbour*, Anglosaxon *hereberge*: to *harbour*, Anglosaxon *herebirigan*; *harbourer*; *harbourage*; *knight-errant*; *knight-errantry*; *ramify*; *ramification*. Derivatives of this sort are termed *Parasyntheta*.

We distinguish genuine and spurious compounding as to form. By the genuine we frequently understand the combination of two words, originally effected by means of a connecting vowel not being a mark of inflection, or, at least the union effected by the prefixing of an uninflected stem before the determined word. We term those compounds spurious, which consist only of the union of parts of speech related syntactically to each other, and betraying such a relation by their form (comp.: *respublica*; *agricultura*; English *holyscript*; *Tuesday*, Anglosaxon *Tives dæg*). The compounding with particles has been placed here.

The connecting vowel is found in Latin (*art-i-fer*; *trem-e-facio*), in Gothic (*mat-i-balgs*, meat, bag, travellers bag; *figgr-a-gulp*, finger-gold, ring; *broþr-u-lubo*, Brotherly love), in Old-Highdutch (*chind-i-spil*, *spil-o-man*). Yet in Latin, as well as in Gothic, the prefixing of the first element of the compound in the fundamental form without a connecting vowel is not unfamiliar. The connecting vowel had become completely foreign to Old-French, save in forms transplanted immediately from the Latin, and seldom remained in Anglosaxon. English knows the connecting vowel only in imported Romance forms and a few imitations of the Latin (anglo-saxon, *burgo-master*, Medieval-Latin *burgimagister*), and perhaps in the amplified Anglosaxon *nihtele*, *näctegale*, *nightingale*. For *handicraft* and similar forms see 179.

Along with these, combinations of words related to each other syntactically have from the earliest times coalesced into a vocal whole in the living speech, as well as into one verbal body in the written language, and have therefore been regarded by the feeling of the tongue as equally warranted with other fusions of words.

We have therefore, in considering genuine compounding, to look so much at the form, as at the substance and meaning. What is essential is that with the verbal whole combined into a vocal unity a particular image is connected. In this respect we may consider compounding as the abridged expression of the developed representation of the relation of given images. We cannot deny that the coming of substantives may often be transmuted into an inflective one. The genitive relation especially approaches that of coming. Comp. Anglosaxon *isgicel* and *ises gicel* = icicle. More the original sense of a compound is sometimes obscured (comp. *isf*), as the variety of meaning in compounds often hardens the relation of them.

The primitive manner of compounding has frequently been effaced in English. Combined words, standing in a syntactical relation to one another, as was disclosed by their form, have lost the inflective termination in English, appearing therefore to be genuine compounds as to their form. If we still perceive them in such words as *Anglesey*, Anglosaxon *Anglesêg*; *Ramsay*, Anglosaxon *Rammesêge*; *Thursday*, Anglosaxon *punres dæg*; *alderliest* and the like, they still vanish almost entirely where no genitive *s* has been preserved, which appears in many modern combinations particularly in names of beasts, plants, and the like, and is made manifest by an apostrophe (*day's-work*; *death's-man* = hangman; *swine's-cress*; *dog's-rue*; *wolf's-milk*), or is subjoined without it (*cock's-comb* = cock's comb; *daysman* = umpire; *bird's-nest*). This *s* does indeed appear where, as in Highdutch, it has the character of a connecting consonant, sometimes in contradiction with the older form: *doomsday*, Anglosaxon *dômdæg*; *bondsman*, Anglosaxon *bonda*, socius, Old-norse *bondamann*, foederatus (distinguished from *bondman*, though interchanging with it); *herdsman* formerly *herdman*, Anglosaxon *hirde*, pastor; *steersman*, Anglosaxon *steórmann*, Old-English *steresman*; *helmsman*, Anglosaxon *healma*, helma, gubernaculum; *huntsman*, Anglosaxon *hunta*, venator; *Scotsman*; *craftsman*, Anglosaxon *cræfta*, artifex, and others. But in general the language inclines, even in improper compounding, to the mere juxtaposition of verbal stems, although it often fluctuates, as in *crow-toe* and *bear's-foot*, two analogous names of plants.

From this genitive *s* the *s* (*es*) of the plural is to be distinguished, which is found in a few modern compounds, as is decidedly the case in *clothes-brush*, *clothes-basket*, and not only occurs in *bellows-fish*, *news-boy*, in which certainly the plural *s* has penetrated into the singular, but also takes place in *beads-man*, *beads-woman* and the like. It is limited to a few notions taken collectively.

Compounding supposes Bipartiteness. To be felt as a compound there must make two syllables at least, in which two verbal bodies are distinguished. They are distinguished as the determining and the fundamental word, of which the determining word, in genuine composition, (apart from the compounding of particles) as a rule has the chief accent, although the rule suffers many exceptions in English. Even the second constituent does not regularly remain unaccented. Where this happens the compounding passes into the form of derivation, and we might therefore reckon such forms as *dom*, *hood*, *ship*, *ly*, *some* &c. in part among derivational suffixes. If a compound is monosyllabic, like *lord*, Anglos. *hláfveard*, *hláford*; *world*, Anglosaxon *veorold*, *world*, from *vēr*, *veor*, *vir*, the consciousness of its living meaning vanishes; this happens to many bisyllabic and polysyllabic forms, in which a verbal body is mutilated and loses the accent: *window*, Old-norse *vindauga*; *lady*, Anglosaxon *hlæfdige* = *hláfveardige*; *gospel*, Anglosaxon *godspell*; *stirrup*, Anglosaxon *stigerâp*; *sheriff*, Anglosaxon *sciregerêfa*; *daisy*, Anglosaxon *dāges eāge*; *twinter* (a beast two years old).

Many compounds not only become unrecognisable, but even die out. English has abandoned many of them; on the other hand the impulse to compound has ever remained alive in the tongue and con-

tinues powerfully to operate. It is indifferent for compounding whether the words are simple or derivative; likewise whether they are of Germanic or of Romance origin. The principle of English compounding is the Germanic, to which compounds of purely Romance elements conform. Imitations of a few Romance forms will be cited in their place. Old-French compounds, the number whereof was limited, have been received in a small number in English. Many of them were originally Germanic. Compare *hauberk* and *habergeon*, Old-French *hauberc*, *hauberjon*, Anglosaxon *healsbeorh*; *gonfalon*, *gonfanon*, Old-French *gonfanon* &c., Anglosaxon *gūðfona* = *gunðfona*.

In the discussion of the details we draw no sharp distinction between proper and improper compounding, so far as the living tongue gives no definite support to it, and both often pass into each other, and a few spurious, for example, appositional compounds are not to be aptly separated from genuine ones, for the sake of a general view. We consider in the first place the compounding of the noun and the verb, apart from their combination with particles, then the compounding of both with particles. The formation and compounding of particles has been already noticed in the doctrine of particles.

1) The Compounding of Nouns.

The Compound Substantive.

A compound substantive arises either through the union of two substantives, or of an adjective and a substantive, or of a verb and a substantive.

a) Compounding from two substantives.

- 1) Compound substantives may in the first place stand in a direct relation to each other, or be apprehended as appearing in the same case.

Here the relation of both may be a purely additional one. Here belongs the substantive *deaf-mute*; *barber-surgeon*; *merchant-tailor* (PASQUIN'S Night Cap. 1612.); *wolf-dog* (bred between a dog and a wolf); This *senior-junior*; *giant-dwarf*, Dan Cupid (SHAKSP. Love's L. L.). The *shepherd kings* (L. BYRON). Old-English *wer-wolf*, Anglosaxon *vervulf*, lycanthropus. Comp. *zoophyte*, *gynander*, *hermaphrodite*. Here belong too *northeast*, *northwest* and the like, Anglosaxon *norðvest* &c. as an adverb. also the French *nord-est*.

From these are to be distinguished appositional relations. The joining on of the apparently appositive generic name to the specific name is common: *woman*, Anglosaxon *wifman*, comp. the Highdutch *Frauensmensch*, *husbandman* (Anglosaxon *hūsbonda*, *domus magister*); *fisherman* (without the opposition); *reindeer*, *reindeer*, along with *ran*, Anglosaxon *hrāndeor*, along with *hrān*: *humblebee*, Danish *humle*; *palm-tree* along with *palm*. Anglosaxon *palmtréo* and *palm*; *beech-tree*; *cornel-tree*, along with *cornel*. Anglosaxon *corntréo*; and often with trees, as the Anglosaxon *áctreó*, *áctreám*, *elmtréo*, *ulmtréo*, *pintreó*, *cirisbeám* &c. — although the tree is here and there named after the fruit: *plum-tree*, Anglosaxon *pláumtréo* from *pláme*, *prunum* (yet whether not also for *prunus*? comp. *fig-tree*,

Anglosaxon *fictreó* from *fig*, fruit and tree); *nut-tree*, Anglosaxon *hnutbeám* &c.; — *reed-grass*, Anglosaxon *hreód*, *arundo*; *pebble-stone* along with *pebble*, Anglosaxon *papolstán* and *pabol*; *pumice-stone*, French *pierre-ponce*; *roadway*; *pathway*. Here too we may reckon: *eventide*, Anglosaxon *æfentíd*; *noontide*, Anglosaxon *nontíd*, for which also *noonday* stands, although here genitive relations might be found. In *but-end* (comp. *butt*) no pleonasm takes place, as in the Anglosaxon *plúmföder* = *pluma*, and in *hap-hazard*, *waist-coat*. Another apposition makes the more general precede the more particular notion: *lord-lieutenant*; *earl-marshal*; *knight-bachelor*; *queen-dowager*; *queen-mother*; *beet-rave*; *beet-ravish*; French *betterave*. Of French origin also is *ostrich*, French *autruche*, *avis struthio*. Here, however, we must distinguish appositions in which the preceding substantive appears completely turned into an adjective: *fellow-member*; *fellow-prisoner*; *fellow-creature*; *deputy-marshal*; *deputy-sheriff*.

Sometimes the former or the latter substantive solely serves to determine the natural gender of the other: *man-servant*; *man-midwife*; *bondman*; *bondmaid*; *beggar-man*; *beggar-woman*; *beggar-maid*; *washer-woman*; *peacock*; *peahen* &c.

As in the union of given and family names, the former is related to the latter as the particular to the general, the original relation of the compounding of given names with generic names must be also regarded. Here, as in other appositive relations, the English accent fluctuates: *Tomboy* (rude boy); *Tomfool* (great fool; *Tomtit Magpie*, *Maggotpie*; *Jackdaw*. Here also belongs *hobgoblin*, (perhaps Robert Goblin), comp. *Gobelyn* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 386.), Medieval-Latin *gobelinus*; also *hobhouland* and *hob-thrush*, to which *Robin Goodfellow* is commonly opposed.

Another relation is that in which a preceding concrete substantive determines a second concrete one by way of comparison, according to its quality. This is like the other, resembles it: *blockhead*; *kingbird* (an American bird, thus named from its pugnacity); *needle-fish*; *horse-emmet*; *ear-shell*; *crab-louse*; *bell-flower*; *buck-wheat*, Danish *boghvede* (from the likeness of the grain to beech-mast); *garlic*, Anglosaxon *gârleác*, from *gâr*, *hasta* (properly spear lack); *gold-fish*, also called *golden-fish*; *goldfinch*, Anglosaxon *gold-finc*; *gold-hammer*, Lowdutch *goldâmer*, *goldâmel*, *emberiza citrinella* LIN.; *silver-fish*; *silver-fir*; *copper-nose* &c. The determining word may be even taken figuratively, as in *headman* = chief (properly a man like the head), Anglosaxon *heáfodmann*; *headland*, promontorium, Anglosaxon *heáfudland*. Comp. *head lady* and *chief woman* (SHAKESPEARE *Love's L. L.* 4, 1.). The primitive abstract term *main*, vis, *robur*, which is regarded also as an adjective, operates similarly in the statement of the quality, as a variety thereof: *main-land*; *main-mast*; *main-sail* &c., comp. Anglosaxon *mâgenstân*, *permagnus lapis*.

2) Further they may stand in an indirect relation to each other.

a) In this case the former, the determining word may be regarded as a case of the substantive.

Very often it may be taken as a genitive, and spurious com-

pounds of a genitive with a second substantive frequently lie at the root of words belonging here. Of this sort, for instance, are names of days, some of which have still preserved an *s*: *Monday*, Anglosaxon *mōnandæg*; *Friday*, Anglosaxon *frīgedæg*; *Saturday*, Anglosaxon *Sāternes dæg*, yet also *Sāterndæg*, *Sāterdæg*; *Sunday*, Anglosaxon *sunnandæg*; many proper names; *Rochester*, Anglosaxon *Hrōfescēastre*; *Oxford*, Anglosaxon *Oxenaford*; *Buckingham*, Anglosaxon *Buccingahām*; *Birmingham*, Anglosaxon *Beormingahām* &c.; as the sign of the genitive is still cast out in modern names before *son*: *Adamson*; *Richardson*; *Wrightson*; *Cookson* &c.; *Anson*; *Nelson* (*Nel* = *Eleanor*) &c. Of course all with the sign of the genitive preserved belong here. But many others are readily explained by a genitive, the wide use of which in many tongues would allow a multitude of cases to be referred hither: *landmark*, Anglosaxon *landmearc*, *terrae limes*; *sea-shore*; *ship-board*; *earthquake*, *terrae motus*, as in Gower: *terre mote*; *sunrise* and *sunrising*; *sunset*, *sunsetting*, Anglosaxon *sunset*, *solis occasus*; *folk-mote*, Anglosaxon *folcmōt*, *populi concio*; *gospel*, Anglosaxon *godspell*, *dei sermo*; *bridegroom*, Anglosaxon *brydguma*, *nuptae (custos) vir* &c. Of Romance origin are: *solstice*, French the same, Latin *solstitium*; *oriflamme*, *oriflamb*, Old-French *oriflambe*, *oriflam* (*auri flamma*); *aqueduct* &c.

A succeeding genitive is found in French forms, as: *court-baron* = a baron's court. Compare propernames like: *Fitz-Walter*; *Fitz-Gerald*; Viscount *Fitz Harris*. Henry the second called himself *Fitz-Empress*.

It may frequently be apprehended as pointing to an original objective relation to a verb, therefore as an accusative. This is particularly the case when the fundamental word is derived from a transitive verb: *innholder*; *innkeeper*; *man-killer*, Anglosaxon *mancwellere*; *man-slayer*, Anglosaxon *manslaga*; *needle-maker*; *land-owner*; *blood-letter*, Anglosaxon *blōdlætere*; *wine-bibber*; *cheese-monger*; *cup-bearer*; *gold-finder*; and many other names of persons in *er*. Thus we may imagine *wright* to be effective in: *shipwright*, *cartwright* &c., Anglosaxon *vænvyrhta*. This apprehension likewise takes place before abstract substantives: *oath-breaking*, comp. Anglosaxon *āðsvaring*; *man-stealing*; *blood-shedding* and *bloodshed*; *thank-offering*; *deer-stealing* and many others in *ing*; *manslaughter*, comp. Anglosaxon *mansleahht*; *promise-breach*, comp. Anglosaxon *brāc* and *brice*, *brēcīng*, *fractio*. Romance forms of this sort, founded on Latin and Greek precedents, are also naturalized, in part received immediately from the ancient tongues, and even imitated, as: *armiger*; *dapifer*; *parricide*; *infanticide*; *homicide*; *artifice*; *stillicide*; *sanguisuge*; *geometer*; *geographer*; *geography*, *cosmography*; *zoographer* &c. *Lieutenant* is French (*locum tenens*), originally a spurious compound.

- 1) Far more frequent is the compounding of the sort that the relation of the compounded substantives is explainable by the intervention of prepositions. But with the manifoldness and freedom of compounding such a procedure does not always suffice to express the often remote connection of the members of the relation.

A division of compound substantives by their relations, as to be explained by different prepositions, serves more to render visible the manifoldness of the compounds than the possibility of reducing to fixed points of view the mental bond of the compounding and the boldness of the language in suppressing intermediate images. A division must also be defective, since for many compounds more than one of the links may be considered as operating.

- a) The relation of the compound substantives may be one of space.

Here the determining word may denote the local object, in, on, upon, near &c. which the subject (person, beast or thing) denoted by the fundamental word is to be found or is active: *landman*, Anglosaxon *landmann* (indigena, agricola); *countryman* (born in the same country); *country-gentleman* (resident in the country); *ship-boy* (serving in a ship); *rope-dancer* (who walks on a rope); *field-mouse*; *water-rat*; *sea-bear*; *sea-fish*, Anglosaxon *sæfisc*: *earth-worm*; *grasshopper*, Anglos. *gārshoppa*, *gārstapa*; *mountain-ash*; *water-lily*; *church-yard* (adjoining to a church), comp. Anglosaxon *cyricstūn*; *tombstone* (over a grave); *top-knot* (worn on the top of the head); *nest-egg* (left in the nest); *ear-ring*, Anglosaxon *earhring*; *eye-tooth* (under the eye); *headache* (in the head), Anglosaxon *heafodece* &c. In such words too as *sea-farer*; *landlouper* (loper); *clodhopper*, Lowdutch *Klutenpadder*; *hedge-creeper*; *fieldfare*, the moving about within the determinate space is what occupies the attention. Even Romance words come to be considered here, as: *funambulist*, *astronaut* &c.

But on the other hand the determining word may contain the object from or out of which, or towards and to which the object contained in the fundamental word moves: *eye-drop*; *land-breeze* (blowing from the land); *sea-air* (from the sea); *thunder-bolt*; *stem-leaf* (growing from the stem); *ground-oak* (raised from the acorn); — *warfare*; *church-goer*; *side-glance*, quite as much *to* the side as *from* the side.

- b) Or it is a relation of time:

The determining word may then denote the space of time in which the object denoted by the fundamental word appears or acts: *evening-star* (visible in the evening), Anglosaxon *sæfesteorra*; *morning-star*, Anglosaxon *morgensteorra*; *day-labour*; *day-work*; *daylight*, Anglosaxon *dagleōht*; *nightingale*, Anglosaxon *nihtegale*, properly *night-singer*; *night-raven*, Anglosaxon *niht-rāfn*; *night-rest*, Anglosaxon *nihtrest*; *night-brawler*. Yet the temporal relations are often looser, as in: *night-hawk* (hunting its prey toward evening); *winter-apple* (that keeps well in winter) &c. Romance: *noctambuliste*, French *noctambule*.

Or the determining word may denote the time for or up to which the appearance or activity of an object extends: *life-annuity* (during a person's life); *day-fly* (that lives one day only).

- c) The numerous other relations of compound substantives are not to be readily distinguished from one another.

The idea frequently lies at the root that the object contained in the fundamental word is connected with the other, and thus characterized by it: *bell-wether* (with a bell on his neck); *finger-post* (with a finger); *flag-ship*; *stone-fruit*; *stone-horse* (not castrated); *shell-fish*; *thunder-storm*; *whirlwind*, Old-norse *hvirfilvinds* (as turbo-ventus); *lime-twigg* (smeared with lime), *grass-plot* (covered with grass). Sometimes the object which is filled with another is denoted: *earth-bag* (filled with earth); *feather-bed* &c.

By the determining word is also denoted the object with which a person is conversant, or in which he works or carries on business: *goldsmith*, Anglosaxon *goldsmið*; *iron-smith*; *wine-merchant*; *stock-broker*; *stock-jobber*; *sword-player*; *ale-wife*; *oil-man* (who deals in oils); *ploughman*; *whaleman* (employed in the whale-fishery); *flax-wench* (SHAKSP.).

The determining word further contains the mean or tool with or by which the object, or the activity predicated by the fundamental word is produced: *handwork*, Anglosaxon *handveorc* (done by the hands); *handiwork*, Anglosaxon *handgeveorc*; *hand-writing*; *hand-blow*; *footstep*; *fist-cuffs*; *sword-fight*; *ear-witness*; *birth-right* (to which a person is entitled by birth).

The material of which an object consists or out of which it is made is not seldom denoted by the determining word: *icicle*, Anglosaxon *isgicel*; *ice-isle*, *oat-meal*; *flint-glass* (originally made of pulverized flints); *stone-wall*, Anglosaxon *stānveall*; *stone-house*; *steel-pen*; *gold-wire*; *gold-thread*; *birch-broom* (made of birch); *rail-way*; where the object out of and from which something is gained or arises appears as the fundamental word: *oil-gas* (procured from oil); *birch-wine*; *beech-oil*; *grape-wine* &c.

Frequently the connecting idea is that of the design, of appropriateness, of the destination to or for that which the determining word contains. The fundamental word may denote a person: *pearl-diver* (who dives for pearls); *prize-fighter*; thus also we may take *neatherd*, Anglosaxon *neáthirde*; *shepherd*, Anglosaxon *scæphirde* (employed in guarding sheep) and the like; or it denotes a beast: *coach-horse*; *game-cock*. But names of things of every sort are very common. Here belong localities: *orchard*, Anglosaxon *ortgeard* (*vyrtegeard*); *vineyard*, Anglosaxon *vingeard*; *bee-garden* (place for bee-hives); *bedroom*; *warehouse*; *landing-place*; *footway*; *foot-bridge* (for foot-passengers); *key-hole* (for receiving the key); especially names for receivers: *ale-vat*, Anglosaxon *ealofāt*; *inkhorn*; *money-box*; *pepper-box*; *beehive*; *bird-cage*; *wine-cask*; *wine-glass*; *clothes-basket*; articles of clothing, armour &c.; *ear-cap*; *breast-plate*; *head-piece*; *head-dress*; *horse-cloth* (to cover a horse); utensils and implements; *eye-glass*; *ear-trumpet*; *foot-board*; *finger-board*; *foot-stool*; *foot-shakles*; *hand-fetter*; *pen-knife*; *horsewhip*; *bird-bolt* (for shooting birds); *hearth-broom* (for sweeping the hearth); *toothbrush*; *stonebow* (for shooting stones); *clothes-line* (for drying clothes); *silk-mill* (for manufacturing silk); *cotton-machine* &c.; in fine, objects of every sort to which the idea of appropriateness

or destination to anything is applicable: *life-blood* (necessary to life); *eye-salve*, Anglosaxon *eágsealf* (for the eye); *fire-wood* (for fuel); *bird-lime*; *gun-powder*; when the reference is often not proximate, as in *ice-boat* (used to break a passage through ice); *hour-hand* (for showing the hour on a chronometer) and the like.

Sometimes the determining word indicates the condition in which or the circumstance under which an object appears or acts: *rainbow*, Anglosaxon *rénboga*; *sleep-walker*, and Romance *somnambulist*, French *somnambule*. An abstract determining word may thus seem to receive the character of an adjective: *rear-mouse*, Anglosaxon *hrêremûs* (*agitatio?* and *mus*).

Familiar compounds of this class often present such general or remote references that they bear eloquent testimony to the assurance with which the tongue commits a series of ideas, in the closest compression, to the most general understanding. Compare for instance *homesickness*, the pain excited by removal from home or by the often unconscious longing for it; *godfather*, *godmother*; *godchild*; *godson*; *goddaughter*, even Anglosaxon *god-fäder*, *godmôdor*, *godbearn*, names for the persons lifting and being lifted out of baptism, in which the name of God refers, indefinitely to the holy act and the reference made thereby to the Supreme being. Every-day names for business relations, without more, hardly give an intimation of their meaning; and who could recognise in *fire-office* the office where objects are insured for the case of risk from fire? Occasionally the license of compounds proceeds stepwise visibly further. Thus, for instance, we readily recognise in *game-cock* the cock used for fighting; thence is developed a *game-egg* in the second degree, wherein, by help of the former we perceive the *egg* from which a game cock is hatched.

In fact substantives connected by prepositions become expressions for an object. Here belong *man-of-war*, whence the new compound *man-of-war-bird* = frigate-bird; *father-in-law*; *brother-in-law* &c.; *love-in-idleness*; *will-o'-the-wisp*, *Will-with-the-wisp* (*wisp* =); also *Jack-a-lantern*; *Jack-of-all-trades* (clever at any business); *Jack-a-lent*, a simpleton (properly a doll in lent). *John-a-dreams*. The giving of names, as in the last examples, is not unfamiliar to the popular fancy.

b) Compounding from an adjective and a substantive.

Here the two parts of speech stand in general in the compound substantive only in the direct relation to each other. The number of compounds of this sort is very large: *ill-will*; *evil-eye*; *oldwife*, comp. Anglosaxon *ealdacvæn* = matrona; *mid-day*, Anglosaxon *mid-dæg*; *mid-winter*, Anglosaxon *mid-vinter*; *neighbour*, Anglosaxon *neah-bûr*; *red-coat*, figuratively, a soldier; *broad-ax*, Anglosaxon *brædeax*; *blindnettle*, Anglosaxon *blindnetel*; *blindworm*, comp. Highdutch *Blindschleiche*; *blackberry*, Anglosaxon *blæcberige*; *blackthorn*; *blacksmith*; *blue-stocking*; *freeman*, Anglosaxon *frimann*, *freómann*; *freemason* (franc-maçon); *freestone*; *wild-goose*; *small-pox*; *small-beer*; *sweetmeat*, Anglosaxon *svêtmete*; *quick-beam* and, strikingly, *quicken-*

tree, Anglosaxon *cvicbeám*, juniperus, and *cvietreó*, tremulus; *quick-silver*, Anglosaxon *cviceolfer*; *quick-grass* and *quitch-grass*; *good-man*; *good-friday*; *gray-hound* and *greyhound*, Anglosaxon *græghund*, *grēghund*; *highland*; *highway*; *half-penny*, Anglosaxon *healfpenning*; *half-brother*; *half-wit* (blockhead); *half-scholar*, compare Old-norse *hálf-bródir*, *hálfviti*, mente captus; *holy-day*, Anglosaxon *háligdæg*; *commonwealth*; *common-sense*. Half and wholly Romance forms are: *gentleman*, French *gentilhomme*; *grandam*; *grandfather*; *grand-seignior*; *grisamber* (reversing the French collocation of the words); *verjuice*, French *verjus* = vert jus.

Romance words have also been received with an adjective after them: *republic*, French *république*; *rosemary*, mutilated from *rosmarinus*, French *romarin*; *vinegar*, French *vinaigre*, imitated in *alegar* = sour ale; *portcullis*, Old-French *porte colise*, also substantive *colecice* (coulisse), from the adject. *coulis*; *bankrupt*, French *banqueroute*. A hybrid imitation is *knight-errant*.

The combination is often to be met with in proper names, as in names of places: *Newport*; *Newcastle*; *Newlands*; *Leominster* (Leófmynster); *Longmeadow*; *Longwood*; *Smaltridge*; *Gloucester* (Gleávcceastre, splendidum castrum); and names of persons: *Broadspear*; *Strongbow*; *Longespee*; *Fortescue* (strongshield) &c.

An indirect relation seldom takes place between adjective and substantive. This is the case in *merry-making* and *merrymake* (festival), where an objective relation hovers before the mind's-eye. A direct relation is also not to be assumed in *self-murder*; *self-murderer*, Anglosaxon *syلفmyrdra*, *selfe-va* and *selfbana*; *self-abhorrence*; *self-applause*; *self-charity*; *self-esteem*; comp. Anglosaxon *sēlflicung*, unless *self* is to be reduced to the meaning of remaining in self (*si-liba* according to Grimm).

In *falling-sickness*, according to the Prompt. Parvul. *falling down*, we must not seek the substantive *falling*, but the participial form. Comp. *fulland-eyl* (HALLIWELL).

c) Compounding of Verb and substantive.

Here two sorts of compounding are to be distinguished.

- 1) The first sort comprises those words in which the verb, as the determining word, contains an activity for which the object contained in the fundamental word is adapted, designed or determining, whether it practise the activity itself or it is executed by another. Here belong: *hangman*; *neesewort*; *rattle-snake*; *pismire*; *brimstone*, Swedish *bernsten*, Old-English *byrnston* (SKELTON), also *brendstone* (HALLIWELL); *draw-bridge*; *tread-mill*; *bake-house*, Anglosaxon *bāchūs* (yet there is also a substantive *bāc*); *wash-tub*; *wash-stand*, Anglosaxon *vāschūs*, *vāscār* (there is certainly also the substantive *vāsc*); *hvetstone*, Anglosaxon *hvetstān*. Many words which might be referred hither remain doubtful, the determining word being also to be interpreted as a substantive, as: *drink-money*; *work-day*; *show-bread* &c. English in compounding generally prefers, the abstract substantives in *ing*: *eating-house*; *burning-glass*; *wedding-day*; *writing-book*, Anglos. *vritbōc*; *writing-school* &c.

- 2) A second sort of compound substantives arises from the prefixing

of a verb, to which a following substantive commonly stands as its object in a relation of dependency. The verb is perhaps always to be regarded as imperative; the compound frequently denotes persons, but things also. The bias, or the aptness and destination of a person or thing to anything is expressed of by an imperative sentence in the form of a summons thereto, in which derision is sometimes mingled. Anglosaxon offered no support here; the Romance tongue was rich in forms of this sort. Many Romance compounds have also passed into English, which multiplied similar forms.

Among the names of persons of this sort are also proper names: *Brakespear*; *Drinkwater*; *Shakestaff*; *Shakespeare* (Shakespeare); *mumblenews* (tale-bearer); *lack-brain*; *lack-love* (SHAKSP.); *pinch-penny* (miser); *pickthank*; *pick-pocket*; *find-fault* (caviller); *want-wit*; *turnkey*; *telltale*; *toss-pot* (drunkard); *spendthrift*; *smell-feast* (parasite); *smell-smock* („mulierarius“ NOMENCLATOR 1585); *carry-tale* (tale-bearer) (SHAKESPEARE); *cut-purse*; *cut-throat*; *kill-courtesy*, a clown (SHAKESPEARE); *chaff-wax* (officer of the lord chancellor, who fits the wax for sealing writs) &c. Even Chaucer has *letgame* (hinderer of pleasure); *trede-foule* (cock, treader of hens).

Names of things are also often of Romance origin: *breakfast*, comp. Anglosaxon *fastenbryce*; *breakwater* (mole); *catchpenny*; — *kerchief*, Old-French *cuevre-chief*; *curfew*, Old-French *cuevre-feu*; *portmanteau*. In *pastime*, French *passe-temps*, *time* may be regarded as a vocative.

Allied to the above mentioned forms are compounds arising from sentences of various sorts, especially imperative sentences, which grow into one whole and become representatives of a notion. To be taken imperatively are: *pissabed*, French *pisse-en-lit*, dandelion; *runaway*, also *runagate* (the latter whereof also mingles with *renegade*); *slugabed*; also *turnsole*, wherein the preposition is absent, as in the French *tourne-sol*, Ital. *tornasole*; further *fare-well*; *holdback*; *holdfast*; *chanticleer*, Old-French *chantecler*; *go-between*; *come-off*; *go-by* = evasion; *hangby* (a dependent); *Dolittle*, *Standfast* as proper names; *forget-me-not*; *kiss-me-quick*; *kiss-me-at-the-garden-gate*; *touch-me-not*; *thorough-go-nimble*, thin bur (Dial. of Crav. 2. 201.), also provincially, a flux. Much more of this sort is in use in the lower layers of society and in dialects. Thus the Old-English poet formed imperative proper names: *Sire Sewel*, and *Sey-wel*, And *Here-wel* the hende, *Sire Werch-well-with-thyn-hand*, A wight man of strengthe (PIERS PLOUGHM.); similar are such proper names as: *Godlovemilady*, *Goodbehere*, in which the conjunctive conditions an optative sentence. Assertive sentences with the indicative are rare, as in the sportsman's: *hunts-up* (reveil or morning-song COTGRAVE) = the hunt is up; *love-lies-bleeding*. Also *jeofail*, the law term for an oversight (the Old-French I err) belongs to this series.

Elliptic manners of expression (without the verb) seldom serve to denote persons or things. Here belongs, for instance, *penny-a-*

liner, by which is contemptuously designated the literary man who writes for public papers at a penny the line.

The Compound Adjective.

The compound adjective consists either of two adjectives or of a substantive and an adjective. The compounding of a verb with an adjective is hardly regarded.

a) Compounding of two adjectives.

1) The one adjective may here stand in a direct relation to the other. This is the case if the compound denotes two qualities additionally, the one of which does not appear as determining the other, but as equally entitled or perhaps mixed with it. Here also Romance forms with the connecting vowel *o* occur: *oblong-ovate* (Botanical); *concavo-concave*; *concavo-convex*; *red-short* (breaking short when red-hot); *whity-brown*; *bitter-sweet* (as a substantive, the name of a plant); *anglo-saxon*. Examples of this sort are not frequent; for in compounds like *anglo-american*; *anglo-danish*; *anglo-norman* the first element, as the more particularly determining, commonly preponderates. Here however may be referred numerals in the additional relation, as *thirteen*, *fourteen* &c., *twenty-two* &c.

Far more commonly the first adjective operates as a determining word of the second: *manifold*, Anglosaxon *manegfeald*; *red-hot*; *red-mad* (quite mad [Durham Dial.]) imitations of the preceding; *half-red*; *roman-catholic*; *full-hot*; *dead-ripe* (completely ripe HALLIWELL s. v.); *daring-hardy* (as else *fool-hardy*, Old-French *fol hardi*; *fool-bold*, wherein *fool* may likewise be regarded as an adjective), *lukewarm*, Cymric *llug*, Cornish *lûg*, stifling. Here also may be reckoned the adjectives compounded with *all* (*al*), although in them the Anglosaxon particle *āl* is primarily to be presumed, but which even in Anglosaxon is interchanged with the adjective *eal*, *omnis*, *totus*, in Anglosaxon: *almighty*, Anglosaxon *ālmeahtig*; *all-eloquent*; *all-present*; *all-powerful*; *all-wise* &c. Comp. *omnipotent*. Yet from these we must distinguish the cases in which *all* appears as an object: *all-bearing* = *omniparous*; *all-making* = *omnific*; to which *magnific*, *vivific*, *grandific*, *grandiloquent* attach themselves as Romance and Latin forms.

Apart from the compounds of adjectives with *ly* and *some*, like *lowly*; *weakly*; *cleanly*; *goodly* &c.; *longsome*; *wearisome*; *wholesome*; *gladsome* &c.; in dialects even *threesome* = *treble* &c. we find most frequently adjectives compounded with the participles, with which the adjective sometimes receives wholly the character of the adverb: *new-made*; *new-born*; *long-spun*; *fresh-blown*; *full-fed*; *dear-loved*; *dead-drunk*; *dead-struck*; *dear-bought*; *high-born*; *high-finished*; *high-grown*; *hard-gotten* &c.; *fresh-looking*; *long-stretching*; *deep-musing*; *high-flying*; *hard-working* &c. Comp. *multivagant*, *altiloquent* and other Latinized forms.

2) In an indirect relation stand compound adjectives the second of which is derived from a substantive, which must be originally thought in a direct relation with the first, although the existence

of a compound with the substantive does not follow from it. Compare the Latin *tardipes*, from *tardus pes*. In a few cases certainly compound substantives subsist along with derivative adjectives of this sort: *even-hand* — *even-handed*; *hot-spur* — *hot-spurred*; *red-coat* — *red-coated*. Latin forms of this sort passed into French, and are also to be met with in English, even in imitative forms, as *magnanimous*; *multiform*; *multinodate*; *multilocular*; *longevous*; *longimanous*; *longirostral* &c. Numerous English forms give to the derived adjective the form of a participle of the perfect, although this often does not exist in Anglo-Saxon: Anglo-Saxon *clænheort* (clean-hearted); *ânhende* (onehanded); *gläseneæg* (glasseyed); yet participial forms also occur: *ânêged* (luscus) along with *ânêage*; *ânecged* (oneeedged) along with *ânecge* &c. Comp. *old-fashioned*; *open-hearted*; *mild-spirited*; *narrow-minded*; *long-legged*; *long-fanged*; *loud-voiced* (L. BYRON); *red-haired*; *blunt-witted*; *full-eyed*; *full-winged*; *wide-branched*; *deep-vaulted*; *dark-eyed*; *sure-footed*; *high-minded*; *hard-fisted*; *hot-blooded*; *hot-brained* &c. Numeral adjectives especially are thus compounded: *one-eyed*; *two-handed*; *two-seeded*; *three-edged*; *three-leaved*; *three-cornered*; *four-footed* Anglo-Saxon *fœverfête*; comp. *quadruped*; *seven-hilled* &c. This is likewise not rare in Anglo-Saxon: *ânhyrned*; *prîbeddôd*; *prîfyrhed* (*trisulcus*); *prîheáfde*; *prîhyrned* &c. A few English compounds preserve the Anglo-Saxon form without the participial form, as *barefoot*, alongside of *barefooted*, Anglo-Saxon *bārfôd*. As an imitation of such forms, of the same sound as substantives, may be regarded: *Three-foot-stool* SHAKSPEARE); *Three-man-beetle* (ID.); whereas the apparently adjective use of substantives, as in *half-blood*, is founded upon the license of loose composition in English.

b) Compounding of a substantive and an adjective.

1) We may regard a substantive and adjective as standing in a direct relation, when their being placed together rests upon a comparison of the quality expressed by the adjective with a characteristic quality of the object denoted by the substantive. Compare *blood-red*, that is, red as blood is red, Anglo-Saxon *blôdreád*; *blood-warm*; *blood-hot*; *armgaunt* (SHAKSPEARE); *armgret* (CHAUCER); *milk-white*, Anglo-Saxon *meolchvît*; *nut-brown*; *sea-green*; *snail-slow* (SHAKSPEARE); *snow-white*, Anglo-Saxon *snāhvît*; *stone-cold*; *stone-dead*; *stone-blind*; *stone-still*; *key-cold*; *coal-black*; *clay-cold*; *grass-green*, Anglo-Saxon *grāsgrêne*; *heaven-bright*, Anglo-Saxon *heofonbeorht*; *honey-swete* (CHAUCER); *hell-hated* (SHAKSP.); *arm-shaped*; *pencil-shaped*; *cone-shaped* &c. This compounding is extended to adjectives in the form of the participle of the perfect, derived from substantives, and in which the comparison touches the object expressed by the substantive lying at their root: *oar-footed*, that is, having feet like an oar; *cock-headed*; *coal-eyed*; *li'l-y-livered* = white livered, cowardly (SHAKSP.) &c. With these may be compared remnants of Romance forms like *vermiform*.

Occasionally the comparison does not go to the characteristic quality of an object generally, but to its constitution, so far as the aforesaid quality belongs to it: *maidpale* (SHAKSP.), not: *pale*

like a girl; but: like a pale girl; *dog-mad*, mad as a mad dog; *dog-weary*; *dog-sick*.

From such compounds are developed those in which the middle links are more remote, so that even the consciousness of an original comparison recedes, and the substantive preceding the adjective is often felt only as a strengthening of the adjective, and is interchanged with others which no longer have any reference to it. Compare *sand-blind*, halfblind (as if sand glistened before the eyes, hence in the North of England *sanded*), whence the strengthening in Shakespeare: *high-gravel-blind* (*Merch. of V. 2, 2.*); *moon-eyed*, that is with eyes change like the moon (with the change of the moon) are affected like the moon; *span-new* (even in Chaucer), that is Anglos. spon = splinter, perhaps with the meaning of nail, hence also compounded with *spick* = spike, *spick-and-span-new*, piping hot (*HUDIBR.*), that is, new like a nail just coming from the fire, agreeing with *fire-new*, new, as if coming from the fire (glowing), for which also *brand-new* and *bran-new* (perhaps assimilated to *span-new*) is used. Hence the combinations: *span-fire-new*; *brand-fire-new*; *bran-span-new*; *brand-spander-new* and the like, in the mouth of the people. *Belly-naked* (which also formerly stood in Chaucer 9200, where Wright has *al aloone body naked*) = entirely naked; comp. *starke bely-naked* . . as naked as my nayle (*ACOLASTUS* 1540.) with which Fiedler compares *mother-naked*, seems to go to the nakedness of the child as it comes from the womb. In *purblind*, *poreblind*, for which strangely *spurdblind* (*LATIMER*) also occurs, no substantive is to be sought for: *pur*, *pore* is naught else than the adjective adverb *pure*: Me scolde pulte oute bope hys eye & make hym *pur blynd* (*ROB. OF GLOUCESTER* II. 376.). Thus we find in the same author *purwyte* (pure white); *pur fersse* (pure fresh); *pure clene* and others. Compare also *plat-blind* (*HALLIWELL* s. v.). Moreover in the provincial *starnaked* (*Suffolk*) *star* is not substantive; it stands for *starknaked*, as *starkgiddy* (*LANC.*), *stark-staring* (*Var. Dial.*).

2) A substantive and an adjective frequently stand in the indirect relation.

α) The substantive may in several cases be apprehended analogously to a case dependent on the adjective; as, a genitive in those compounded with *full* (for the most part) and *less* and in some others, as those with *weary*, *worthy*, *guilty*; *life-weary*; *blood-worthy*; *blood-guilty* and the like; as a dative in composition with *ly* and *like*: *deathlike*; *godlike*; *snow-like* &c. In Romance compounds a substantive appears not rarely as an accusative before a verbal adjective, as in *igniromous*; *armigerous*; *oviparous*; *mammiferous*; *morbific*; *morbifical*; *pacific*; *fatiferous*; *fatidical*; *carnivorous*, and others. In English forms a participle of the present in *ing* appears with its object preceding it. Comp. *earth-shaking*; *mind-filling*; *life-giving*; *love-darting*; *death-boding*; *soul-stirring*; *heart-piercing*; *heart-rending* and many more, in which only the collocation of the words departs from the common syntactical combination of the verb with an object.

β) Some substantives compounded with genuine adjectives are

to be explained by means of connecting prepositions. They are to be reduced in part to relations of space, so far as the quality makes its appearance in, on or upon an object, or extends up to an object: *bedrid*, Old-English *bedrede*, Anglosaxon *bedrida*, -*ridda*, -*rëdda*, properly a substantive, participially, by a misunderstanding, *bedridden*; *steadfast*, Anglosaxon *stedfast* (fast in place); *Armstrong*, as a proper name, Anglosaxon *earnstrang* (*braccio validus*); *headstrong*, figuratively; *heart-sick* (sick at heart), Anglosaxon *heortseóc*; *soul-sick*; *heart-deep* (rooted in the heart); *brimful*, full to the brim; *topful*, the same, hence figuratively *topproud* (SHAKSP.); *breast-deep*; *breast-high*, that is, to the breast; *knee-deep*; *threadbare*, that is, bare to the thread. Other references are not frequent, as that of the cause: *love-sick*, sick from love; *sea-sick*, sick from the sea. In *arme-puissant* (WEBSTER) the idea of the cause is likewise approximate. That of an inclination or bias to something lies in the dialectical, particularly Scottish compounding with *rife*, as: *playrife*, comp. playful, playsome; *wast-rife*, squandering; *toothrife*, enjoyable, comp. toothful, palatable; *rife* is Anglosaxon *rif*, frequens, Old-norse *rifr*, largus, Lowdutch *riwe*, which is also used for "readily resolved, not shy at anything". In *watertight*, we may suppose the idea of tightness against water. Latin had similar forms, which, scantily native to French, were still more scantily copied; they have not been lost in English: *armipotent*; *armisonous*; *noctivagous*; *noctilucous*; *caprigenous* &c. English is however most rich in compounds of this sort of a substantive and a participle, in which the reference to space, time, connection and causality is expressed, and which poetry particularly multiplies: *air-built* (in the air); *forest-born* (in a wild) (SHAKSP.); *heart-hardened*; *soul-felt*; *earth-wandering* (over the earth); *sea-roving*; *sea-faring*; *night-blooming*; *night-shining*; *birth-strangled* (suffocated in being born) (SHAKSP.); *air-born* (of the air); *earth-born* alongside of *terriginous*; *ale-fed* (with ale); *moss-clad*; *dew-besprinkled*; *sea-girt*; *snow-crowned*; *copper-fastened*; *angel-peopled*; *fool-begged* (begged by a fool, foolish); *wind-dried*; *dew-bent*; *sea-tossed*; *sea-torn*; *thunder-blasted*; *wind-fallen*; *book-learned*; *death-doomed* (to death) &c.

c) Compounding of a verb and an adjective.

This sort of compounding, foreign to French, less limited in Germanic tongues, as in the Highdutch compounds with *bar*, *haft*, *lich* &c., is almost wholly unknown to English. A verbal stem is sometimes found here before the termination *som*, as in: *tiresome*; *buxom* (from *beógan*, *būgan*); in *forgetful*, and perhaps a few more. Through the sameness in sound of these verbs with substantives the decision is, moreover, sometimes doubtful here, as in *toilsome*, the dialectical *feelless* and others.

2) The Compounding of the Verb.

a) Compounding of two verbs.

No verb is compounded with another verb in Anglosaxon; Latin offers compounds of verbal stems with *facere* and *fieri*, as *calefacere*

&c., besides *valedicere*. French has adopted some such verbs, even imitated them; forms of this sort with the French form in *fy* (*fier*) have passed into English: *arefy*; *liquefy*; *stupefy*; *calefy*.

b) Compounding of a substantive and a verb.

The formation of verbs of a noun and a verb is in general foreign to the older Germanic tongues, most forms which might appear to be such being parasynthetic, therefore verbal forms from an already compound noun. Primitive compounds are especially those with the substantive *mis*, Anglosaxon *miss*, *mis*, *mist*, which indeed even in Anglosaxon was only employed as a particle in compounding, and in English coincides in form and meaning with the Old-French particle *mes*, Modern-French *més*, *mé*, Latin minus: *misurite*, Anglosaxon *misvritan*; *misteach*, Anglosaxon *mistæcan*; *misdo*, Anglosaxon *misdōn*; *misthink*, comp. Anglosaxon *mispyncean*; *mishear*, Anglosaxon *mishýran*; *misbehave*; *misbelieve*; *misgive* &c.; *miscounsel*, Old-French *mesconseiller*; *misesteem*, French *mésestimer*; *misjudge*; *misgovern* &c. English hardly has any others, resting upon older Germanic tongues, at whose root no visible compound lies; *handfast*, Anglosaxon *handfāstan* (in *manum tradere*); *handsel*, Anglosaxon *handsellan* (subst. *handselen*, Bosw., Old-English *hand-sal*); *ransack*, Old-norse *ransaka* (*explorare*; subst. *ransak*, from *ranni*, *domus*, but also *ran*, *spolium* and *saka*, *arguere*, *nocere*, comp. Highdutch *heimsuchen*).

English forms are: *motheat* (to eat as a moth eats a garment); *landdamn* (to condemn to quit the land); *landlock* (to encompass by land); *ringlead*; *partake* (a hybrid form from *part take*); *backbite* (to censure the absent); in *backslide* (to fall of) *back* seems to operate as a particle; *bloodlet*; *browbeat* (to depress by severe looks); *waylay* (to beset by the way); *kilndry* (to dry in a kiln); *caterwaul*, comp. Old-English *catwrralling* (to cry as cats in rutting time); *keelhale*; *cleftgraft* (to ingraft by inserting the cion in a cleft); *hoodwink* (to blind by covering the eyes), from Anglosaxon *hód*, *pileus* and *vincjan*, *connivere*. *Hamstring*, is derived from *ham-string*; *spurgall*, to gall with the spur, has also a substantive of the same sound alongside of it (comp. Old-norse *galli*, *naevus*) and seems a derivative verb, like *to gall* alongside of the substantive *gall*. Romance forms, which attached themselves to Latin ones, have likewise been received, partly imitated, particularly those in which the substantive may be taken in the accusative: *belligerate* (*belligerare*); *edify* (*aedificare*, French *édifier*); *modify*; *mortify* (*mortificare*, *mortem facere*); *pacify*; *signify*; *versify*; *tergiversate*; = *duncify*; *fishify* (*jocosely*); *ignify*; *rapidify*; *mummify*; *satisfy*; *sanguify* &c. Verbs too, in which the substantive could not answer to an accusative, have been received according to the Romance pattern: *manumit* (*manumittere*); *crucify* (*cruci figere*); *maintain* (*maintenir* = *manu tenere*).

c) Compounding of an adjective and a verb.

Of this sort of composition the same was true in Anglosaxon, with the exception of the adjectives *ēfen* (Engl. *even*), *full*, *sam*, as has been observed of substantives. Of them only *fulfill*, Angl. *ful-fyllan*, is remaining; besides a few modern forms, as *finedraw*;

finestill, to distil (WEBSTER); *dumfound* (to strike dumb); *newfangle* is derived from the Old-English adjective *newfangel*, greedy of innovation (comp. Anglosaxon *fenge!* = susceptor); and *newmodel* reminds us of the subst. *model* with the adj. *new*, like as *white-wash* and *dry-nurse* are to be derived from the substantives of the same sound. In *southsay*, which leans upon the Anglosaxon *sôðsagol*, *sôðsprêcande* and the like, *sooth* may be taken either as an adjective or a substantive. Romance forms of this sort after the Latin pattern are mostly compounded with *fy*: *magnify*; *mollify*; *falsify*; *fortify*; *vivify*; *ratify*; *dulcify*; also with pronouns: *identify*; *qualify*; rarely others, as *vilipend*. The agglutination of the verb with an adjective after it is peculiar in *vouchsafe*, in Old-English mostly written distinctly *vouchen safe* (*vouche saf* MAUNDEV. p. 148. the king *vouches* it *save* [LANGTOFT 260.], *vouche ye hur safe* (Ms. in HALLIWELL from *vouchen*) that is Old-French *vochier*, *rocher* and *salf*, *sauf*. vocare salvum. Along therewith was formerly found the hybrid combination: *witsafe* (Anglosaxon *vitan*, imputare): That God *witsafe* to saue them fro dampnation (THE PARDONER p. 117.).

How far participles can appear with a noun before them, has been before pointed out. In this respect the language has ruled much more freely, the verbal nature of the participles blending with that of the adjective.

There is a number of apparent or real compounds, in which a misunderstanding or a disfigurement of the fundamental forms prevails. *Roundelay*, French *rondelet*, has been occasioned by the Romance *virolai*: Old-English *Synggyng* of *lewde* *balettes*, *rondelettes* or *virolais* (Ms. in HALLIWELL from *virolai*); *beaf-enter* (a yeoman of the guard) must have arisen from the Old-French *buffet* = *buffetier* (on account of their being appointed at the buffet); *farthingale*, the hoop of a frock, rhymes with *nightingale*, and has been deformed from the Old-French *vertugale*, *vertugadin*; *furbelow* (apparently *fur-below*), is the Ital. *falbala*, also *farfala*, *farubala*. *Peter-see-me*, a Malaga wine, is the corrupted *Pedro-Ximenes*; as zinc wares in Lincolnshire and Nottingham bear the name (*tutenag*), the corrupted name of the metal *tooth-and-egg*; *sparrow-grass* arose from *asparagus*, in Fletcher: *sperage*; *causeway* alongside of *causey* is an apparent compound instead of the Old-French *cauchie*, *chaucie*, Modern-French *chaussée*; *crayfish* and *crawfish* with crab stand under the influence of the Old-French *escrevisse*, Modern-French *écrevisse* and the like. Other for ns are puzzling, as *balderdash*, with which *haberdasher*, is nearly allied, since in Old-English *haberdash* likewise denoted a jumble of things: An hole armory of *suche haburdashe* (SKELTON l. 267.). In the North of England the schoolmaster is also called *haberdasher*. Two analogous forms are *tatterdemalion*, *tatterdemallion* (*tatter*, perhaps = Old-French *maillon* = *maillot*), and *slubberdegullion*, a filthy fellow (*slubber*, and *gullish*, or *gully*), in which *de* seems to be the French particle. *Pedigree*, which some would explain by *pes* and *gradus*, others by *par degrés*, has an older form *petygrewe* (PALSGRAVE) which confutes those explanations. Even *scabbard*, seems a compound; in Old-English it is: *scauberk*; *schauberk*, perhaps *Scheiden-berge*, compare Old-norse *scafi*, *scalprum*, and *hauberk*, Old-French *hauberc* and *haubert*, *Hals-berge*. A greater number of obscure compounds has been incidentally treated of in the Phonetics. Others, in which a play with rhyme, alliteration and alternation of sounds takes place have been discussed at p. 431.

3) The compounding of the Verb and of Nouns with Particles.

With this sort of Compounds, prepositions, or particles nearly allied to prepositions, together with a few others, come chiefly under review. There are on the one hand primitively Anglosaxon; on the other, Romance particles. Both have entered into hybrid combinations and agree with one another here and there in form. The Romance compounding has however been preserved to a wider extent than the Germanic, many compounds with Anglosaxon particles having been wholly or partly abandoned.

a) Compounding with Anglosaxon particles.

We discriminate inseparable particles, occurring only in combination with and before verbs and nouns, and separable ones, which also occur in syntactical combination outside of these. Anglosaxon formed numerous compounds of both sorts; English has gradually abandoned them more and more, yet also employed many particles in various new forms.

1) Inseparable Particles.

a, Old-Highdutch *ur*, *ar*, *er*, *ir*, Gothic *us* (*ur-r*), Angl. *ā*, and in Angl. not to be always distinguished from the *ā* standing for *an*, *on*, and *af*, *of*, and Modern-Highdutch *er*, has been getting more and more rare in English. It still stands in a few verbs, partly with the meaning of direction upwards, as if up out of something: *arise* (*ārisan*); *arouse* (*ārāsjan*); *awake* (*āwācan*); *awaken* (*āwacnjan*, yet also *onwacnjan*); partly of a continuous, also successful activity: *affright* (*āfyrhtan*); or of an inchoate activity: *alight* (*ālhtan*). — Many are obsolete, as: *abare* (*ābārjan*); *aby* (*ābycgan*); *ashame* (*āscamjan*), the participle from which, *ashamed*, is still particularly in use; *agrise* (*āgrisan*, *horrere*); *aslake* (*āsleacjan*). The old tongue had many more, as: *ablenden* (*āblendan*); *awreken* (*āvrēcan*); *asferen* (*āfæran*, *terrere*); *aquellen* (*ācvellan*); *agulten* (*āgyltan*) &c. In nouns it is hardly found save in parasyntesis: *affright*, Anglosaxon *āfyrhto*.

an, *a*, *un*, Gothic *and*, Old-Saxon *ant*, Modern-Highdutch *ent*, in Anglosaxon rarely *and*, often *on*, answering to the Old-Highdutch *ant* and *and*, is found, as *and*, only in the substantive *answer* (*andswara*) and the derivative verb *answer* (*andswarjan*). The *and* interchanging with *on* and *ā*, appears as an Engl. *a* in: *abide* (*ābīdan*), also *and*-, *an*-, *onbīdan*); as well as in the obsolete *acknow* and *acknowledge* (*oncnāvan*, Old-Saxon *antkennjan*) and in the participle *adread* (*andrædan*, *ondrædan*), Old-English *adrenchen* (*ādrenčan*, *ondrenčan*). But the Anglosaxon *on* in the privative sense, belonging here, early passed into the English *un*. The reason lies in Anglosaxon forms, in which *un* appears along with *on* &c., without any essential distinction: *unbind* (*onbindan*, *onbīdan*, but also *unbīdan*); *ungear* (*ongearvjan*); *undo* (*ondōn*); *unlock* (*onlūcan* and *unlūcan*); *unwind* (*unvīndan*), *retexere* alongside of *onvīndan*, *solvere*; *untie* (*ontygan* and *untygēan*); *unyoke*

(ungeócan). The number of verbs, compounded with this privative *un*, answering to the Romance *dis*, is very great; it is also readily annexed to Romance forms: *unarm*; *unparadise*; *unbias*; *unbutton*; *unfix*; *unsaint*; *unchain*; *uncage*; *unharness*; *unhumanize* &c.

un, Anglosaxon *un*, Old-norse *ó*, Modern-Highdutch *un*, not only in the sense of the Romance *dis* but also of *in*, belonged, even in Anglosaxon, less to verbs than to substantives, and particularly to adjectives. In verbs the forms with *un* are hard to distinguish from those with a primitive *on*; see *an*. The number of substantives compounded with an Anglosaxon *un* very much meted away: *untruth* (untreóvð), and is contained in hardly any Germanic imitations: *unfriend*; *unfriendship*; *unrest*; *unbelief*; *unhap*; as in parasynteta: *unanswerableness*; *uncouthness*; *uncleanness* &c.; also compounded with Romance substantives: *unacquaintance*; *unrepentance*; *unreserve*; *unconcern* &c.

But the number of adjectives and particles compounded with *un* is uncommonly large: *uneven* (unēfen); *unwise* (unvís); *unright* (unriht); *unfair* (unfäger); *uncouth* (uncúð); *unclean* (unclæne); *unearthly*; *unbearable*; *unseemly*; *unhandsome* &c.; *unending*; *unebbing*; *unabiding*; *unbeing*; *unedifying*; *unaccording*; *undeclining* &c.; *unabetted* (unábêtt = âbêted); *unbroken* (ungebrocen); *unwrinkled*; *untold*; *unexhausted*; *unacted*; *unlimited*; *undated* &c. Nouns often alternate between *un* and the Romance *in* (see *in*); we find a solitary case of this *in* most remarkably in Anglosaxon: *incúð*, *ignorans*, *incúðlice*, *ignoranter*.

be, Anglosaxon *bē*, *bi*, *big*, Old-English *be*, *bi*, Gothic *bi*, Old-Highdutch *pi*, in Modern-English in verbs and in the form *be*, except in the parasynteton *by-name*; on the other hand in use sometimes in nouns in the separable form *by*, answers, as an inseparable prefix, to the Highdutch *be*. It affords a pretty good number of compound verbs, although many Anglosaxon compounds have been lost. The particle gives essentially, as it seems, especially to the transitive verb, the import of the activity working in the immediate proximity, therefore comprehending and comprising the object and extending beyond it: *bemoan* (bemēnan); *belie* (beleógan); *belay* (belecgan); *befoul* (befýlan); *beweep* (bevêpan); *bethink* (bepencian); *beseech* (bisēcan); *besmear* (besmērjan); *bespeak* (besprēcan); *bestride* (bestridan); *bestrew* (bestrevan); *begird* (begyrdan); *beget* (begētan); *begnaw* (begnagan); *behave* (behabban); *behold* (behealdan) &c.; *bemaze*; *benumb*; *bewail*; *bewilder*; *bedash* &c. Even Romance verbs receive the particle: *bemask*; *bepinch*; *bepaint*; *bepowder*; *bepurple*; *betray*; *besiege* &c. Many verbs of this sort are formed from nouns, although simple derivative verbs often stand alongside of them: *bewinter* (to make like winter, on the other hand, winter = to pass the winter); *bedevil* (abuse, on the other hand devil = to make devilish); *benight*; *betroht*; *beleper* (to infect with leprosy); *besnuff* (to befoul with snuff, not from the verb to snuff); *belee* (to place on the lee) &c. On the other hand *befriend*, *bewitch*, *behoney*, *bespot*, *bestain* and many more, have simple verbs alongside of them. Expressions like *belittle* (to make smaller), *beguilty* (to render guilty) are not naturalized in England.

The privative import of the verb *behead* (beheáfdjan) also belongs to the simple *head*, as well as to the Anglosaxon *heáfdjan*, decollare.

In intransitive verbs the import of the particle recedes more: *become* (becviman); *belong*; *be happen*, although most of the intransitives are also at the same time transitive, as: *betide*; *beseem* and others.

be is seldom united with the substantive: *belief* (leáfa); *behest* (behæst); *behalf*; *behoof* (behôf); but the accented *by* often; *by-word* (bivord); *by-spell* (bi-, bigspell) with various later formations in the meaning of the collateral, deviating and private: *by-interest*; *by-end*; *by-matter*; *by-name*; *by-pass*; *by-path*; *by-blow*; *by-speech*; *by-street*; but also *by-stander* as spectator. In proper names: *Bywater*; *Bythelway*; *Bythesea* &c. *by* works as a preposition. Adjectives in *be* are formed from participial forms: *be-mused*; *beloved*; *befogged*; *betumbled*; *betutored*; *begilt*; *begored* &c.; whose remaining verbal forms do not occur, although we sometimes find their infinitives cited in dictionaries.

for, Anglosaxon *for*, answering to the Gothic *faur*, *fair* and *fra*, Old-English *for*, *vor*, *ver* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), Modern-Highdutch *ver*, precisely distinguished from *fore*, yet sometimes confounded with it, belongs especially to verbs and their parasynthetic. A great number of compounds with *for* has been gradually abandoned. The essential import of the particle, that of forth, away, off, appears in: *forbid* (forbeódan); *forbear* (forbēran); *fordo* (fordōn); *forsake* (forsacan); *forwear* (forsverjan); *forgive* (forgifan); *forget* (forgētan); participle *forlorn*. The older tongue has *forfend*, *fordrive*, *forsay* (forsecgan = forbid) and others. The idea of deviation, as if of a perversion of the activity lies in the Old-English *forshape* (transform); *forthink* (repent); that of out beyond and past lies in *forego* (forgangan, praeterire, distinct from *forego*, foregangan = to go before), and the old *forpass* (go by). The idea of going on in doing to the end, of finishing, which goes on to annihilation, has been quite abandoned in Modern-English: Old-English *forbeten* (beat down); *forbitten* (bite to pieces); *forfeden*; *forwasten*; often in participial forms: *forwept*; *fordwined*; *forpined*; *fordronken* &c.; also as *fore*: *forespent* (SHAKESPEARE); *foreshame*; *foreslow*; in which the particle often works only strengtheningly. In *forelay*, also *forlay* (to block up the road) the particle *fore* = before is perhaps to be sought; comp. *forestall*, Old-English also *forstallen* (hinder &c.). Parasynthetic nouns are: *forbiddance*; *forbearance*; *forbearer*; *forgiveness*; *forgetful* &c.

The particle *ge*, Mod.-Highd. *ge*, here and there appearing in participles as *y*, has been abandoned: *yclad* &c., Old-English also in nouns, as: *ywis*; *ylike* &c.; Modern-English as *e* in *enough*. Instead of *ylike* we find in Modern-English *alike*, as *akin* (allied by nature) answers to the Anglosaxon *gecynne*, congruus. *To*, Anglosaxon *tō*, Modern-Highdutch *zer*, has also disappeared in Modern-English. Old English still often used it in the meaning of the Latin *dis*: *tobreken* (tōbrēcan); *tobresten* (tōbrēstan); *to-cleven* (tōcleófan); *torenden*; *todrawen*; *toswinken*; *toluggen* (tear): *toskullen* (cut off); *toheven*; and in Skelton: *toragged* and *torente* I, 43.

2) Separable Particles.

in, Anglosaxon *in*, with the meaning of the Latin *in* and *intra*, has been preserved in a few Anglosaxon verbs and nouns, as in: *indrench* (*indrencan*); *inland* (*inland* = *terra dominica*); *income* (compare *incviman*, *intrare*); *infangthef* (*infangen pēf*); *inwit* (*invit*). How far extended the Germanic *in*, not assimilating its *n* before other sounds, is to be assumed to be cannot be properly determined, since it blends with Romance forms. Thus *in* comes before Germanic words: *inlock*; *inbathe*; *inbreathe*; *infold*; *inwall*; *inweave*; *insnare*; *inhold* &c.; *inroad*; *inlet*; *instep* &c.; yet it yields to Romance forms: *enlighten* (Anglosaxon *onlŷhtan*); *ensetter*; *engird*; *embolden*; *imbolden*; *embody*; *imbody*; *imbrown* &c.

after, Anglosaxon *āfter*, *post*, is no longer found in verbs, as in Anglosaxon, but only in a few nouns, in the sense of succession in time: *aftermath*; *afternoon*; *afterages*; *afterpiece*; *afterbirth*; *aftertaste*; *afterthought*; *aftercrop*.

on, Anglosaxon *on* (*au*), Old-Highdutch *ana*, Modern-Highdutch *an*, is frequent in verbs and nouns in Anglosaxon, but only to be met with in English in a few nouns: *onset* (comp. *onsettan*, *an-settan*); *onsetting*; *onslaught* (comp. *onslāg*); *onstead* (single farmhouse) might belong to *one*; *onward*. Formerly the verb *onset* also was found; *onbraid* (= *upbraid*, *PALSGRAVE*). *Onstand* is dialectical (NORTH.), a money compensation from the outgoing to the ingoing tenant; *onfall*. and the like.

off, Anglos. *of* (*af*, *āf*), Old-norse *af*, Modern-Highdutch *ab*, is in use in only a few nouns: *offspring* (*ofspring*), suboles; *offset*; *offal* = *off-fal*, Old-norse *affall*, rubbish; *offscum*, Old-norse *afskūm* (also regarded as an adjective = *vile*); *offscouring* (without a corresponding verb), *refuse*; in *off horse* (most distant) *off* is regarded as an adjective. *Offset*, as a verb, is not the Anglosaxon *ofsettan*. but a parasynteton of *offset* in the meaning of counterreckoning.

over, Anglosaxon *ofer*, Old-Highdutch *ubar*, Modern-Highdutch *über*, is common in Anglosaxon in verb and noun compounds, and is frequently employed in English in composition with Romance stems. It has the sense of over in space, with regard to an activity passing above an object. Verbs: *overflow* (*oferflōvan*); *overgild* (*ofergildan*); *overspread*; *oversnow*; *overcloud*; *overarch*; *overveil*; here belong also *overglance* and the like; in the meaning of the movement passing over: *overclimb* (*oferclimban*); *overleap* (*oferhleápan*); *overreach* = to extend beyond; *overfly*; *overshoot*; *overship* &c., therefore also of the movement going from above downwards: *overset* (diverging from *ofersettan*, *supra ponere*); *overthrow*; *overturn*. Nouns: *overleather*; *overstory*; *overfall* (*cataract*) &c.; *overbuilt*; *overgrassed* &c. In regard to time the sense of beyond lies in *overlive* (*oferlibban*) = *outlive*; *overdate*.

The meaning of overstepping a relative or absolute measure is frequent. Verbs: *overpoise*; *overweigh*; *overbalance*; *overtop*; — *overeat* (*oferētan*); *overdrink* (*oferdrincan*); *overween* (*ofervēnan*); *overdo* (*oferdōn*); *overdrive* (*oferdrifan*); *overagitate*; *overrate*; *overfreight*; *overjoy*; *overcharge* &c. Nouns: *overlight* (immoderately

light); *overhaste*; *overcare*; *overjoy* &c.; *overfull* (oferfull); *overeager*; *overlong*; *overmodest*; *overneat*; *overwise*; *overelegant*; *overpassionate*; *overzealous* &c.

To that is attached the meaning of superiority, which may appear as an outstripping, surpassing, and as overpowering. Verbs: *overget* (yet Anglosaxon oferġetan, oblivisci); *overreach* (of horses); *overgo* = surpass; *overmatch*; *overcome* (ofercuman, superare); *overawe*; *overbear*; *overpower*; *overrule*; *overpersuade* &c.

The going over a thing has also the sense of negligence and superficial doing: *overlook*; *overpass*; *oversee*; *overslip*; as the activity going over a thing may sometimes have the sense of a quicker doing in a succession: *overread*; *overname*. *Over* may also work merely strengtheningly: *overstand* (oferstandan, insistere).

The coming over to may further have the idea of suddenness, and even of privateness; thus sometimes in: *overtake*; *overcome*; *overhear*.

Generally speaking, many even of the above words combine several of the meanings above indicated, the understanding whereof is given by the context; comp. *overrun*, 1. to cover all over, 2. to outrun, 3. to harass by hostile incursions; *overstep*, 1. to step over, 2. to exceed. Here also belong *overpass*; *oversee*; *overlook*; *overlay*; *overcast*; *overgrow*; *overhaul* and many more.

out, Anglosaxon *ūte*, *ūt*, Old-Highdutch *ūz*, Modern-Highdutch *aus*, has in compounds, which in Anglosaxon especially prevail as verbal compounds, in general the meaning of proceeding from something internal, when either the quitting of that space or of a point in space, or the further movement to the goal and end may occupy the mind. Therefore the *out* and *away* come in part into the foreground in the verbs: *outwind*; *outwrest*; *outbud*; *outpour*; *outroot* &c.; as also in *outraze*, *outweed* &c., and, in connection therewith, selection: *outlook*. Nouns: *outgoing* (ūtgang); *outset* = beginning; figuratively: *outbreak*; *outburst*; *outcry*; and of concrete objects: *outgate*; *outlet* and *outcast*. With that is connected the idea of outside and abroad, as of removal or exclusion from space, as in the verbs: *outbar*; *outshut*; and in nouns: *outpost*; *outwall*; *outparish*; *outport* &c.; *outlaw* (ūtlah); — *outborn* (foreign); *outlandish* (ūtlendisc); as also *outside*, belongs here. Extension and stretching from the point of departure lies in verbs like *outspread*; *outstretch*. The *out* and to the end lies in *outwear*; *outraign*; *outbreathe* (expire).

Alongside thereof the idea of proceeding beyond something or of outbidding, in the sense of *over*, is frequent: *outnumber*; *outbrave*; *outbalance*; *outwit*; *outwork*; *outdo*; *outdrink*; *outknav*; *outgo* (on the other hand ütgangen = exire); *outgrow*; *outjest* and many more. Even here we find verbs used in more senses than one.

under, Anglosaxon *under*, Modern-Highdutch *unter*, stands before Germanic and Romance stems, and forms the contrary in space to *over*, as referred to the deeper and lower. Verbs: *undermine*; *underline*; *underprop*; *underwrite* (undervritan); *under-*

sign; hence also figuratively *underbear* (underbēran, supportare); *underfong* (underfangan); *undergo* (undergangan, subire); *undertake* (Old-norse undirtaka, annuere); *understand* (understandan, intelligere); and so too *underset* (undersettan, substituere). Nouns: *underwood*; *underbrush*; *undergrowth*; *underground*; *underpetticoat* &c. Adj. *undershot*.

With that is connected the notion of less, as of a remaining behind under a measure. Verbs: *underdo* (on the other hand underdōn, supponere); *underlet*; *underrate*; *underprize*; *underpraise*; *undervalue*; *undersell* &c. Nouns: *underdose*; — *undersaturated*.

The notion of subordination is frequent, especially in substantives: *undersheriff* (comp. undergerēfa); *under-master*; *underlabourer*; *underfellow*; *under-workman*; *under-chamberlain* &c. Adj.: *underbred* (of inferior breeding). In *underplot* (clandestine scheme) there lies the notion of secrecy, as of what is done in the deep, beneath; in the obsolete *undersay*, to contradict, there lies the image of denying by speaking. Sometimes even here different senses are annexed to the same compound in different contexts.

up, Anglosaxon *up*, *upp*, *uppe*, Adv. sursum, in altum, Modern-Highdutch *auf*, is not frequently to be met with, and mostly in verbs, as in Anglosaxon. It remains true to its fundamental meaning, in the proper and the figurative sense; but *up* now commonly comes after its verb. Verbs: *uplift*; *uplead* (upled MILTON); *uprise*; *upraise*; *uproot*; *upbear* (upbēran); *upbind*; *upstay* (to support); *upswarm*; *upheave* (uphebban) &c., many are growing obsolete. In *uplay*, *uphoard*, there lies the notion of hanging up as of heaping up; on the other hand in *upset*, to overturn; *uproot*, *uprear* and the like, are perhaps the standard. Figuratively: *upbraid* (upgebrēdan, exprobrare). In the obsolete *uplock* = lock up (SHAKSP.), we must think of the drawn up bolt. Nouns are rare: *upland* (highland); *upstart*, also a verb; *uproar* (hrōr, motus); *upshot* (final issue); *upright* (upriht); *upward* &c.; *uphand* (lifted by the hand); *uphill* (difficult).

fore, rarely *for*, Anglosaxon *fora*, more frequently *fore*, sometimes *for*, ante, antea, Modern-Highdutch *vor*, is compounded with Germanic and Romance stems.

In verbs it denotes less commonly the before in space: *fore-run*; *foreflow*; *forego* sometimes for *go before*; often in Nouns: *fore-end*; *fore-mast*; *foreland*; *forelock*; *fore-part*; *forehead* (foreheāfod); *fore-horse* &c. — *forward* (foreveard). Herewith is combined the notion of priority, as in *foreman*; *forerank*; *forehand* = chief part (SHAKSP.) and the like.

By far more common, especially in verbs, is the meaning of before and previousness in time: *forebode* (forebodjan); *foretoken* (foretācenjan); *foresay* (foresecgan); *foresee* (foreseón); *fore-speak* (foresprēcan); *forearm*; *forelook*; *foredoom*; *foreshadow*; *fore-admonish*; *fore-appoint*; *fore-determine* &c.; in nouns: *forenoon*; *forefather*; *foresight*; *foreknowledge*; *fore-belief* &c.; frequently in participial adjectives without a verb: *forepast*; *forequoted*; *forecited* &c. Parasyntetha are also numerous.

The doing before appears also as anticipation in the man-

ner of checking or excluding; *forestall* (foresteallan); *foreclose*; *forelay*.

forth, Anglosaxon *forð*, *inde*, frequent in Anglosaxon in the compounding of verbs and nouns, is found in a few verbal adjectives: *forth-coming* (forðcuman); *forth-issuing*; and in *forthgoing*, also used substantively. The adverb *forthright* (forðrihte) likewise occurs as a substantive (straight path, SHAKESPEARE). Old-English had more compounds still: *forthwerpe*; *forthhelde*; *forthword* (bargain); also with the comparative *fotherfete* (RITSON).

with, Anglosaxon *wið*, has been preserved in a few verbs and their parasyntetha only, and only with the meaning against: *withstand* (wiðstandan, resistere); which may be apprehended as back in *withdraw*; *withhold*. Old-English also has *wiðsay* (wiðsecgan); *wiðsitten*; *wiðscapen* &c.

with, Anglosaxon *wiðer*, an adverbial comparative form formed from *wið*, Old-Highdutch: *widar*, Modern-Highdutch *wider*, occurred only compounded with verbs and nouns. Modern-English still has substantives, as the law term *withernam*, reprisal (viðernâm); *witherbant*; Old-English *witherwin* (wiðer vine, inimicus); dialectical: *withewise* (otherwise); *witherguess*, the same &c.

thorough, rare in composition *through*, Anglosaxon *purh*, *puruh*, Modern-Highdutch *durch*, to be met with in Anglosaxon in verbs and nouns, is now found only in a few nouns, in the meaning of movement through, as well as of being permeated, of being filled through and through or completely: *thoroughfare* (purhfaru); *thorough-base*; — *thorough-wax*; *thorough-wort*; — *thorough-bred*; *thorough-paced*; *thorough-lighted*; *thorough-sped*; *thorough-going*.

gain, Anglosaxon *gāgn*, *geán* &c., is rare in Anglosaxon in the form *geán*, frequent on the contrary in compounds, in *engeán* &c. In English a few, mostly obsolete verbs and parasyntetha are to be met with: *gainsay*; *gainstand* (ongeanstandan); *gainstrive*: — *gainsayer*; *gainsaying*.

The particle *well* too, rarely *wel*, Anglosaxon *vēla*, *vēl*, Modern-Highdutch *wohl*, rarely occurred in Anglosaxon in verbal compounds, as *veldōn*, rarely too in substantives, as *veldæd*; but frequently in adjectives, particularly participles used adjectively. In English accordingly the number of the last named compounds is preponderant; the fundamental words are generally of verbal nature, when *well* operates adverbially: *well-wish*; *welfare*; *well-being*; *well-doing* (comp. *veldōn*); *well-meaner*; *well-willer*; *well-doer*; — *well-meant*; *well-born* (vel boren); *well-built*; *well-bred*; *well-beloved*; *well-set*; *well-educated*; *well-established*; *well-anchored*; *well-complexioned* and many more. — *Welcome* (vilcumjan, from Anglosaxon *villan*, *ville*, *velle*, *voluntas*) does not belong here.

The particle *wan*, Anglosaxon *van*, *von*, properly *deficiens*, even in Anglosaxon occurring only in compounds, works privatively, as *un* or *dis*. It is now hardly to be met with save in the obsolete *wanhope* (despair, want of hope); Old-English *wantrust*; still frequently in Scottish dialects, partly too in the North of England, as: *wanchancy* (unlucky) and others.

Prepositions compounded in Anglosaxon with verbs often appear in English, and in gradually increasing extent, as adverbial determinations, or working as prepositions, separated from and after them: *inbringan*, to bring in; *incuman*, to come in; *afterfylgan*, to follow after; *ongeanbringan*, to bring again; *ofadrifan*, to drive off; *utcuman*, to come out; *oferbringan*, to bring ofer; *underbeon*, to be under; *fordāsendan*, to send forth; *purhbrēcan*, to break through &c. But such particles, especially prepositional ones, are sometimes found invertedly combined into one word with the preceding, particularly a verbal constituent, as in *hang-by*; *hanger-on*; *luck-up* (a prison): even with participial forms, presupposing a verb with a separate particle: This *scal'd-up* counsel (SHAKESPEARE Love's L. L. 3, 1.). Until the *long'd-for* winters come (BUTLER); a combination explicable by the syntactical relation and by the accenting of the members syntactially united.

b) Compounding with Romance Particles.

Romance particles, that is, those originally Latin which have passed through the French, have received a great extension in English, where they indeed chiefly go along with Latin, yet are frequently put to Anglosaxon stems. They are never, like Germanic particles, detached and placed adverbially after a word. Many compounds of particles, moreover, proceed immediately from or attach themselves again more closely to the Latin. Many have occasioned very numerous imitations. Particles which, like *avec*, *dans*, have not in French been the means of forming compounds, also remain foreign to English. We consider firstly the inseparable particles of the Latin tongue, then its separable ones, and lastly a few adverbial ones, which have proceeded from Latin adverbs and nouns, and even in French have received the character of particles, so far as regards composition.

1) Inseparable Particles.

Here belong the privative *in*, *amb*, the adverb *nā* (not) occurring in the finished Latin tongue in compounds only, as well as *re*, *se* and *dis*.

in, Latin: French: the same, equal to the Greek *ἀν* as a privative particle, and coinciding notionally with *un*, whose place it takes without any fixed limit (comp. *incertain*, *uncertain*; *incertitude*, *uncertainty*; *inapt*, *unapt*; *inhabile*, *unable*; *inconcealable*, *unconcealed* &c.); assimilates, like the preposition *in*, the *n* to a following *m*, *l*, *r*, and before *p* and *b* passes into *m*. It is originally added to nouns (also to participles used as adjectives). Verbs with a privative *in* were in Latin only parasyntetha, which were much augmented in French, even newly formed substantives were in French, and are mostly in English, although with many exceptions, parasyntetha. Newly formed adjectives are numerous. Substantives: *insipience*; *inscience*; *inexperience*; *impiety*; *illiberality*; — *inexertion*; *inharmony* (comp. *inharmonic*); *intranquillity*; *irremoval*; *inunderstanding*. Adjectives: *immemorial*; *impolite*; *illegal*; *incautious*; *inextinguible*; *inopulent*; *invalidinary*; *inconcluding*; *indiscussed*; *infragrant* &c. Along with parasynthetic verbs, as: *inquiet*; *im*

mortalize; *illegalize*; *individuate* (Latin *individuus*): *incapacitate* (incapacious), but is also found, for instance *inexist*.

amb, *am*, *an*, properly *ambi* (compare Greek ἀμφί), around, about, is found, as in French, rarely. It is contained in the verb *amputate*, and in nouns, as *ambition*; *ambiguity*; *ambages*; *ambulation*; *ambulance*; — *ambiguous*; *ambulant*; *ancipital* &c., all of which take root in Latin.

ne, Latin *nē*, not, is very rarely contained in Latin words: *nescience* (*nescientia*); *neuter*, *neutral*, French *neutre*, -al; Latin *neuter*; *nefarious* (*nefarius*); *nefandous*; Parasyntetha: *neutrality*; *nefariousness*.

re (*red* before vowels), is French *re* (*red*), Latin *re*, *red*, even *redi*, from which *red* appeared especially before vowels. *Red* stands, for instance, in English in *reintegrate*; *redeem*; *redound* (French *redonder*); *redargue*; *redolent*; yet *reintegrate* is also found, comp. French *réintégrer*. French often cast out the vowel *e* before *en* (*in*), *e* (*ex*) and *a* (*ad*) in modern forms; English reimported the *e* (*reenter*, French *rentrer*; *reattach*, French *rattacher* &c.). The principal meaning of the particle is back, whence proceeds the meaning again (*reluctance*, *resist*), with which is connected that of repetition. It often appears only as a strengthener, as in *rejoice*; *recommand*; *repute*; *receive*; in which at least the idea back no longer appears. Instances of received compounds are uncommonly numerous and need no quoting. Modern forms attach themselves particularly to the meaning again, and are added not merely to Romance stems, as in *reimplant*; *reimprint*; *reinvest*; *reappoint*; *reobtain*; *reurge*; *recelebrate*; *recaption*; *recapture* &c.; but also to Germanic ones: *reopen*; *remind*; *remake*; *renew*; *relight*; *rebellow*; *rebuild*; *rebreathe*; *refind*; *redraw*; *regather*; *rehear*; *rehearse*; *rekindle*; *requicken* &c.

se, French *sé*, Latin *se*, also *sed* (in *sedition*), *so* (in *socors*), is rare even in French, and in English to be met with only in a few words originally Latin. The fundamental meaning is that of removal and severance (without, particularly, aside). Verbs: *select* (*seligere*); *separate*; *seduce*; *severn*; *secede*; *segregate*; *sefoin* (WEBSTER, Scottish), whence nouns, especially parasyntetha: *sedition*; *seduction*; *sejunction*; *secret* &c.; *seducible*; *seditious*; *secure* &c.

dis, *di*, with the collateral form *de*, Old-French *des*, Modern-French *dis*, *di*, *dés*, *dé*, Latin *dis*, *di*, before *f* with an assimilated *s* = *dis*, denotes division and distribution; the idea of severance also passes into that of interruption. Along with that arises the privative or negative meaning of the negation of the notion of the fundamental word. English chiefly recurs to the Latin form, and uses *dis* before vowels and consonants. Before *s* with a consonant after it, *s* is cast out, as in Latin, (*distinguish*, *dis-stinguere*); *dispirit*. Modern formations are numerous, especially with the privative sense of *dis*, with which the Modern-Highdutch *ent* may be compared. The compounding with *dis* is favoured in verbs and nouns: *dispute*; *distend*; *dissolve*; *discern*; *differ*; *diffuse*; — *dispensation*; *disquisition*; *discourse*; *difficulty*; — *distant*; *dissonant*; *discrepant*; *discreet*; *diffluent*; — *disarm*, Old-French *des-*

armer; *disappoint*, Modern-French *désappointer*; *disobey*, Modern-French *désobéir*; *disdain*, Old-French *desdaigner*; *disjoin*, Old-French *desjoindre*; *disconfit*, Old-French *desconfire*; *disguise*, Old-French *desguiser*; — *disease*, Old-French *desaise*; *distress*, Old-French *destresse* (from the Latin *districtus*); *dishonest*, Old-French *deshoneste*.

The form *di* is rare in English, as in French: *diminish*; *dilapidate*; *dilacerate*; *dilate*; *divert*; *diverge*; *divest*; *divide*; *divulge*; *judicate*; *digest*; *digress*; — *dimension*; *diminution*; *dimission*; *divorce*; *divulsion*; — *direct*; *divers*; *diluent*; *dilute*.

The particle in the form *de* (Modern-French *dé*) is only to be distinguished by collation with the fundamental ancient forms from *de* = Latin *de*. Frequently *de* and *dis* run alongside of each other: *deorydate* along with *disox.*; *denaturalize* along with *disn.*; *deploy* along with *display*, Old-French *desploier*; *decolor* along with *discolor*; *decompose* along with *disc.*; *devest* along with *dir.*; *defame*, Latin *diffamare*; *defy*, Old-French *desfier*; *depart*, Old-French *despartir*, distinct, however from *dispart*; *detach*, French *détacher*, Ital. *distaccare*; — *delay*, French *délai*, Latin *dilatum*; *defeat* from Old-French *desfaire*, *deffaire*; *deluge*, French *déluge*, Latin *diluvium*.

des also is found in *descant*, Old-French *deschans*, compare Medieval-Latin verb and subst. *discantare*; *discantus*.

Modern forms in *dis*, *ent*, are numerous, not merely before Romance words, as: *disincline*; *disinherit*; *disable*; *dispauper*; *dissatisfy*; *disconnect*; — *disimprovement*; *dispathy*; *dispassion*; *discongruity*; *discourtesy*; — *disingenuous*; *disinhabited*; *disparadized* &c.; but also before Germanic ones: *disembody*; *disembosom*; *disown*; *dislimb*; *dislike*; *disroot*; *disbowel*; *disburden*; *disbelieve*; *dishearten*; *dishorn*; *disgospel*; — *diskindness*; — *disedged*.

2) Separable Prepositional Particles.

in (*im*, *il*, *ir*) and *en*, *em*, Latin *in* &c., French *en*, *em*, has come into English partly in the Latin, also in assimilated forms, but which are likewise not foreign to the French, partly in the French transformations. Frequently the Latin and the French form run alongside of each other: *intitle*, *entitle*; *inthrone*, *enthroned*; *injoin*, *enjoin*; *incage*, *encage*; *ingender*, *engender* &c.; *imbark*, *embark*; *impeach*, *empeach* &c. Frequently also the French form has given way to the Latin. In compounds *in*, *en* answers in meaning to the Latin preposition *in*, especially with a reference to movement, as *in*, *on*, *upon*, particularly also to the Modern-Highdutch *ein*, denoting the direction to the internal and the tendency to include. The Latin forms of the particle stand in words like: *immit*; *immerge*; *inescate*; *inaugurate*; *innovate*; *insatiate*; *invade*; *invoke*; *incarcerate*; *illustrate*; *irritate*; — *invasion*; *instinct*; *infeudation* (*inféodation*); *impulse*; *inescation*; — *inmate*; *infernal*; *incavated*; *ingenuous* &c.; and in those to which French had given its forms, although the latter are often used alongside of the former: *inebriate*; *inter*; *incloister*; *inquire* &c. Yet French forms have also remained unaltered: *endure*; *engage*; *enhance*; *embellish*, *embrace* &c.; *envoy*; *ensign*.

Imitated forms are numerous, both with Latin and French forms of the particle, yet those with *in* are not always to be distinguished from compounds with the Anglosaxon *in*. Comp. moreover: *im-mask*; *impalsy*; *impawn*; *impoverish* &c.; *inmailed* &c.; — *enact*; *enambush*; *enlarge*; *enraviash*; *enfeeble*; *enfranchise*; *endanger*; *enseal*; *empurple*; *empark*; *embody*; *embroider*; — *enarmed* &c. Occasionally the assimilation before *m* is omitted: *enmarble*; *enmew* along with *emnew*.

inter, *enter*, French *inter*, *entre*, Latin *inter*, appears in English in both these forms, yet rarely in the French *enter*. The particle has the meaning of between, and refers to what severs two objects, comes into their midst, also interrupts and works negatively: *interpose*; *interpoint*; *intercede*; *interject*; *interclude*; *intercept*; — *interval* (properly a space between two poles); *interact* (French *entraîcte*); *interclude*; — *intermundane*; *interosseous*. This idea also lies originally in *interdict*; as well as in *interpret* (to speak as an intervening interpreter); so in *interlope*; *intercourse*. Connection appears also in the meaning among one another: *intermix*; *interlace* (*entrelacer*); *interjoin*; *entertain* (*entretenir*). Modern forms, which are chiefly of the latter sort, are not rare, even in union with Germanic stems: *interfere*; *interanimate*; *interchain*; *interchange*; *intermarry*; — *interspace*; *interchapter*; — *intercellular*; *international*; — *interlink*; *interleave*; *interweave*; *intertack*; *intertwist*; — *interleaf*; *interknowledge*; — *interureathed* &c.

intro, French: Latin: the same, is very rare in French, in English in a few forms borrowed from the Latin. The meaning of the particle is: into, of movement into the inside of an object: *intromit*; *introduce*; *introspect*: with parasynthetic nouns: *introduction*; *introggression* (*intro-gredior*); *introit* (*introitus*). We also find *introvert*; — *intoreception*; *introsusception*; — *introflected*, as modern forms.

ex, *ef* before *f*, *e*, *es*, Old-French *ex*, commonly *es*, Modern-French *ex*, *e*, *es* before *s*, occurs most rarely in English in the form *es*. The particle denotes essentially the movement out from the inside, also away and off from it, which may also go upwards (*extoll*); when the image of extension from the point of departure (*expand*, *extend*) as well as of the carrying out to the end, of finishing, may be the standard (comp. *exsiccate* and *effect*, *elaborate*). A going beyond a measure is likewise not remote; as well as a departure from the essence of an object (*exceed*, *exorbitant*, *effeminate*). Many Latin and French forms have been imported, when the French *es*, *e* often returns to *ex*, comp. *extend*, Old-French *estendre*; *extinguish*, Old-French *esteindre*; *exchange*, Modern-French *échanger*. The great majority of compounds comprehends imported words: *exempt*; *exalt*; *exonerate*; *expatriate*; *exhale*; *examen*; *exanimous*; *exterior*; (after *x* an initial *s* is wont to be cast out: *expect*; *extil*; *exiccate* along with *exsiccate*; *exude* along with *exsudation* &c.); — *effect*; *efface*; — *emaciate*; *elect*; *eraze*; *evade*; *edict*; *elocution*; *elegant*; — *essay*, Old-French *essaier*, *asaier*, as it were, *exagiare*; *escape*. Old-French *eschaper*, as it were *exappare*; *estreat*, comp. Old-French *estraire*; *escheat*, Old-French subst. *eschet*. Modern forms are rare: *exauthorize*; *exculpate*; *effran-*

chise (to invest with franchise); *eradicate*; *eglomerate*; *eglandulous*; more frequently with a privative *ex*, as in the Latin *exmagister*, *exdecurio* and the like; *ex-mayor*; *ex-president*; *ex-prefect*; *ex-representative*; *ex-dictator*; *ex-secretary* &c.; also adjectively: *ex-official*.

extra, French: Latin: the same, outside of (of the not included) was to be met with in Latin only in compound nouns; French formed a few verbs with *extra*. English adopts a few such verbs: *extravagate*; *extravasate*. With nouns, like *extraordinary*; *extramundane*; *extravagant* &c. are associated modern forms: *extramission*; *extra-pay*; *extra-work* &c.; *extra-regular*; *extra-parochial*; *extraneous*; *extraveneate* and a few more.

a, *ab*, *abs*, French Latin the same, exists in French in traditional forms, as in English also. The prefix opposed to *ad* has mostly the meaning of going from a point, in the sense of the Highdutch *ab*, *ent*, *weg*. Nouns are mostly parasyntheta: *avert*; *avolate* (*avolare*), along with *abvolute* (comp. Latin *abvoco*, *abverto* and the like); *abalienate*; *abridge* (*abréger*) along with *abbreviate*; *absolve*; *absterge*; *abstain*; — *abolition*; *abdication* &c.; *abnormous*; *absonous*; *absent* together with many substantives derived from adjectives. The forms *advance*, *advantage* are erroneous formations from the Old-French *avancer*, *avantage*, from *avant* = *ab ante*.

ad, *a*, French Latin the same, remained in Latin before vowels and *h*, *d*, *v*, mostly also before *m*, *ad*, but cast out the *d* before double consonants (*sp*, *st*, *sc*, *gn*), and assimilated to the consonants *n*, *l*, *r*, *p*, *f*, *t*, *s*, *c*, *g*, *g*, although not necessarily. In French the rejection of the *d* before consonants and in Old-French also before vowels was usual, without any fixed principle. In English the proceeding with regard to *d* is likewise without consistency, yet less than in French, with a more frequent return to the Old-Latin usage. French has many imitated forms, especially in factitive verbs, which English adopts, without attempting considerable new formations. The fundamental meaning of the particle is that of direction and striving, as well as of motion and reaching to an object or into its immediate neighbourhood: *adapt*; *adore*: *adorn* (Old-French *aorner*, *adornare*); *addict*; *adhere*; *adjoin*; *admire*; *arraign*, Old-French *araisnier* from *raison*; *appear*, Old-French *aparoir*; *approve*; *affirm*; *attain*; *assail* (*assaillir*, *assillire*); *assuage*, Old-French *assoager*, as if *assuaviare*; *accept*; *acquaint* (*accointer*, as if *accognitare*); *aggrieve*, Old-French *agrever*; *asperge*; *astrict* &c.; *adhortation*; *advent* (French *avent*, *adventus*); *arrair*, Old-French *arroi*, *arrei*, *arrair* from *roi* = *ordre*, from Anglosaxon *râd*, *ræde*, *promptus*; *appetite* &c.; — *aduncous*; *adjacent*; *apparent*; *affable* &c. Imitated forms are seldom found; comp. *addoom* = *adjudge*; *allure*, French *leurrer*; *affreight* (to hire a ship for freight). Compounds with *a* remain doubtful, on account of the Anglosaxon *a*, as: *amaze*; *amate* (accompany) and the like.

ante, *anti*, French: Latin: the same, with the meaning of before in time, in space and in rank, is rare in French in traditional verbs, and is hardly imitated, but is to be found on the other hand in a few adopted and imitated nouns (also with the form *anti*).

In English there exist a few Latin and French compounds, and a few nouns have been imitated: *antepon* (*anteponere*); *antecede* (*antecedere*); *antedate*, French *antidater*; *anticipate* (*anticipare*); — *antiloquy* (*anteloquium*); *antecessor*; *antechamber*, French *antichambre*; — *antelucan*; *antemeridian* &c. Imitations: *antechapel*; *antiport*; *antetemple*; *anteroom*; *antenuptial* &c.

ob, French: Latin: the same, with the assimilations of the *b* before *p*, *f*, *c* (in *omit*, Latin *omittere*, *b* has been cast out before *m*) passed into French without occasioning imitation, likewise into English. *Ob* denotes the direction and motion towards an object, therefore also against something, then, generally, extension over something (*obversari*, *offuscare*). The strengthening meaning of *ob* in *obscure*, as in *obsecrare*, returns to the sensuous image of influence away and over. Verbs: *obviate*; *observe*; *obsecrate*; *oppose*; *offend*; *occur*; *occupy*. Nouns: *obedience* and *obeisance*; *opponent*; *office*; *occasion*; — *oblivious*; *oblong*; *obscure*; *opposite*; *occult*. In *obovate*, French *obové*, there lies the idea of an opposite direction, inversely ovate. — Occasionally the English has abolished the assimilation: *obfuscate* along with *offusate*; *obfirm*; *obfirmate*.

ultra, French *ultra*, *outré*, Latin *ultra*, beyond, in Latin only in *ultramundanus*, in French in a few words, as *ultra* and *outré*, stands in the English *ultramontane*; *ultramundane*; *ultramarine* (adj. and subst.).

per, *par*, French *per*, *par*, Latin *per*. French used *per* and *par* in traditional words, *par*, on the other hand, commonly in imitations. The English has adopted a few compounds with *par*, and transformed *par* in part into *per*. The assimilated particle *pel* still occurs in *pellucid* (*pellucidus*). The language hardly knows imitations. The particle is used of going through in space, as well as of diffusion through space (also through and through). therefore further of completed activity. Verbs: *perish*; *peragate*; *permit*; *permeate*; *perpend*; *perfume* (*parfumer*); *pervert*; *per-tain*; *persist*; *persuade*; *perjure* (*parjurer*); *pardon*; *parboil* (*parbouillir* whether = *part-b?*); Nouns: *pererration*; *peroration*; *perfidy*; — *peracute*; *perennial*; *perpetual*; *perfect*; *pervious*; *pervicacious* (*pervicax*). Modern forms: *peruse* (*per uti?*), Old-English = examine, survey; *parbreak* = to vomit (SKELTON).

post, French Latin the same, after, with reference to time and rank, an infrequent prefix in Latin, more rare in French, is not much in use even in English, yet at the same time not without a few modern forms. Verbs: *postpone*; *post-date*, French *postdater*. Nouns: *postliming* (*postliminium*); *postil*, Medieval-Latin *postilla*; *postscript*, French *postscriptum*; *postscenium*, Latin the same; *postfact*, subst. and adj.; *postpositive*, French *postpositif*; *posthumous*. Modern forms: *post-fir*; — *post-entry*; *post-existence*; *post-obit*; *post-fine*; *post-disseizin*; *post-disseizor*; — *postnate*; *post-nuptial*; *post-remote*; *postdiluvial* (-ian).

pre, French *pré*, Latin *prae*, has in compounds the meaning of before in space (*present*, *pretend*, *precipitate*), but more frequently that of the before in time (*predetermine*, *preoccupy*, as *preclude*,

prevent and *preminent*) with which is connected the idea of precedence (*precede*, *prefer*, *preeminent*) and superordination as a previous determination (*prescribe*, *precept*). French has adopted a great number of Latin compounds in *prae*, and imitated many; English has obtained them from both tongues and imitated not a few, especially with a reference to the before in time, as: *preinstruct*; *preengage*; *preelect*; *prexamine*; *preadmonish*; *preappoint*; *preobtain*; *prepossess*; *pretypify*; *preconceive*; — *preintimation*; *preacquaintance*; *preaudience*; *predelineation*; *precontract*; — *preremote*; *preconsolidated* &c. *pro* is also prefixed to Germanic stems: *prewarn*; *preknowledge*; *predoomed*.

preter, French *préter*, Latin *praeter*, was little employed in compounding in Latin, occurs rarely in words preserved in French, and in English is also of little import. The prefix denotes past, with reference to space and to time, with which the idea of going beyond a measure is associated: *pretermit*; — *preterit*; (*preterition*, *preteritive*), *preterlapsed* (*praeterlapsus*). Nevertheless there are a few modern forms: *preterimperfect*; *preterperfect*; *preterpluperfect*; *preterlegal*; *preternatural*.

pro, *pour*, *pur*, *por*, French *pro*, *pour*, *por*, Old-French *por*, *pour*, *pur*, Latin *prō*, in compounds occasionally *prō* (*prod* to take away the hiatus). As in French compounds with *pro* are the most numerous, so also in English. Imitations were in general not frequent, English has hardly any to shew. The prefix denotes essentially the direction forwards, before, forth: *propel*; *progress*, *proceed*; *promote*; *prominent*. Thus in *profane* the before is contained (being before the temple, therefore not in it, unholy), as in *prohibit* the forth (to keep removed). With that is connected the meaning of forth from: *proffer*; *procreate*; *produce*; *provoke*; wherewith is connected the idea of bringing forth to sensuous perception in general, or of making notorious and of publication: *pronounce*; *proclaim*; *profess*; *protest*; also *proscribe*. Forwards appears referred to time, as if out into the future, in *provide*, *protract*; and in *prorogue* (yet perhaps properly to ask previously) and the like. The meaning of representation lies in *proconsul*, that of relation in *proportion*. — The French forms *pour*, *pur*, *por* rarely appear, but are sometimes interchanged: *poursuivant* and *pur-suivant*; *pourpresture*, Medieval-Latin *proprestura*, from the Old-French *porprendre*, *purprendre*, also *parprendre*, whence *porprise*; *pourparty*, *purparty*, Medieval-Latin *purpartia*, *propartia* and *perpars*; *purloin*, Old-French *purloignier*; *purpose*, Old-French *purposer*; *purvey*, Old-French *porvoir*; *pursue*, Old-French *porsevre*, *parsevre*; *purchase*, Old-French *purchacier*; *purple* and subst. *purfile*, Old-French *purfiler*, *parfiler*; *purview*, comp. *proviso*; *purprise*, Old-French *purpris*, and a few *parasyntetha*. As the Old-French *pur* interchanges with *par*, so in English *purtenance* has run alongside of *appartenance*. *Por* stands in *portray*, Old-French *portraire*, whence *portrayal* and *portrait*, *portraiture* come.

trans, *tra*, *tres*, French *trans*, *tra*, *tré*, Old-French *tres*, Latin *trans*, *tra*, was transferred in old forms from the Latin into French, and in both served to make new forms. English, except in *tres-*

pass, Old-French trespasser c. der. always has the Latin forms and mostly *trans*. With an *s* after it the *s* of *trans* is commonly cast out, even Latin fluctuates between *transsillio*, *transscendo* and *transilio*, *transcendo* &c. The fundamental idea with this particle is that of motion or position out over an object, beyond it, as in: *tranate*, *transate*; *transmit*, *transport*, *transcend*, *transgress*; — *transition*; *transit*; *tramontane* &c.; *transatlantic*; *transmarine*; *transpadane*; as past in *transient*; *transitory*; which may also appear as motion through an object: *transfix*; *transcolate*; *transpire*; *transude*; — *transparent*; *translucent* &c. Sometimes it imports the transfer from one place to another: *transplant*; *transfuse*; *transcribe*; *transcript* &c. With that is connected the idea of transformation or transmutation: *transfigure*; *transform*; *transmute*; *transubstantiate*; *travesty* &c. In *transact* lies the idea of completion; *traduce*, *slandering* &c., is properly to draw through, to expose to scorn, with obliteration of the figure even in Latin. Modern forms are: *transanimate*; *transplace*; *transship* and *tranship*; *transshape*; *transfreight*; *translocation* and the like.

de, Modern-French *de* and *dé*, Latin *de*, has been preserved in many Latin forms in French and English. The particle has originally the meaning of removal in space: off, away, forth, which is readily transferred to other predicaments, as it especially passes over into the idea of deviation and of need. The regard to progression and the movement to the end gives the idea of finishing, when the particle may frequently appear as a strengthening of the expression. Examples are numerous in which the French compounds with *dé* are to be distinguished from the compounds with the Latin *dis* only by a comparison of the fundamental forms. Verbs: *deaurate*; *demean*, French *démener*; *demur*, Old-French *demorer*; *deny* (*denegare*); *delight*, Old-French *deleiter*; *derive*; *depaint*; *deplagate*; *detrone*, French *détroner*, Ital. *detronizzare*; *decipher*, French *déchiffrer*, Ital. *diciferare*; *degrade* &c. Nouns: *dedition*; *desuetude*; *deceit*; — *derelict*; *devious*; *derout*; *desultory* &c. Imitations, as: *deprive*; *depauperate*; *debase*; *deface*; *deforce*; *defoul*; *deroid* &c., are not frequent; yet we may reckon here any coinciding with the French *dés*, as: *deobstruct* (*désobstruer*); *deoxydate*; *deoxydize* (*désoxyder*); *decarbonate*; *decarbonize* &c. Compare *decorticate*, Latin *decorticare*.

sine, Latin the same, French *sans*, without, stands in English in *sinecure*, *sinecurism*, *-ist*; the French form perhaps in *sansculotism*. See prepositions p. 410.

sub, *sus*, *under*, are developed from the Latin *sub* and *subtus*; the *b* in *sub* is commonly assimilated before *m*, *p*, *f*, *c*, *g*, sometimes also before *r*. In French *sub* with its assimilations has been in part preserved, therewith stands the Latin *sus*, French *sous*, *sou*, arising from *subtus*, Old-French *sos*, *soz*, *suz*, *sous*, which however operates quite like *sub*. In meaning it is nearly allied to the Anglosaxon *under*. It is chiefly referred to the deeper and lower in space, both in the proper and in the figurative sense: *submerge*; *subscribe*; *suffumigate*; *suppurate*; *support*; *suffer*; *subside*; *subsist*; *suppress*; *subvert*; *submit*; *succumb*; *subdue*, Old-French *sosduire*,

souduire, subducere; *supplant*; — *suburb*; *snbhastation*; — *subja-cent*; *subcelestial* &c.; whence the notion of subordination, as in *subserve*; *subordinate*; *subdivide*; *sub-prior*, French *sous-prieur*; *subdean*, French *sous-doyen*; *subalterne* readily results. The idea of a movement immediately behind, after and to an object, such as the Latin preposition *sub* affords, makes its appearance in compounds in: *succeed*; *subjoin*; *suffix*; *sufflate*; *succor*; *subsequent* &c. The notion of a completing representation lies in *surrogate*; *supply*; *suffixe* and others. The meaning of lessening, as in *subtract*; *subduce*; *subduct*, rests upon the idea of taking away beneath. That of secrecy is connected with that of space: *suborn*; *surreption*; it has been lost in *summon* (*submonere*), *sub* gives to adjectives a diminutive meaning: *subacid*; *subfusc*, Latin *suffuscus*. The forms cited have all come down; rarely those in *sus*: *suspire*; *suspend*; *suspect*; *sustain*; *suspicion*; *suspension*; *sustentation*; *susception*; *susceptible*, and other *parasyntetha*.

In modern forms verbs seldom appear, substantives often, in which *sub* has the meaning of subordination: *sublet* = to underlet; *subdiversify*; — *subinfeudation* (Medieval-Latin *subfeodare*); *subpurchaser*; *subtutor*; *sub-brigadier*; *sub-committee* &c.; also *sub-worker*; *subkingdom*. Adjectives are most numerous, partly with the meaning of under in space; *subaerial*; *subapennine*; *subcaudal*; *subdented* (indented beneath), but commonly with a diminutive meaning: *subastrigent*; *sublepid*; *subsaline* (comp. *subsalsus*); *subcrystalline*; *subglobose* &c.

subter, under, beneath, in Latin sometimes used in compound-ing, was preserved in French only in *subterfuge*; in English in *subterfuge*, Latin *subterfugium*, and in *subterfluent*; *subterfluous*, from the Latin *subterfluere*.

super, rarely *sur*, was not rare in Latin compounds. French seldom preserved the form *super*; it was changed into *sur*, Old-French *sor*, *sur*, *sour*, and appeared in this shape even in modern forms. Compounds with *super* and *sur* have been adopted in English, modern forms have arisen, particularly with *super*. Both particles denote above, upwards over and beyond, the latter also in regard to time, as well as measure, and also assume the meaning of superordination in the ethical sense. English often restores *super* instead of *sur* in traditional words.

Adopted compounds with *super* are, for example: *superpose*: *super-struct*; *supervene*, rarely *survene*, French *survenir*; *superlive* along with *survive* French *survivre*; *superexalt*; *superabound*; *superinspect*; *supersede* (French *superséder* and *surseoir*) &c.; — *superstition*; *superabundance* &c.; *supermundane*; *supernatural*, French *surnaturel*; *superfluous*; *supereminent*, French *suréminent*; *supercilious* &c. The French form *sur* stands in: *surmount*; *surmise*, comp. *surmit* HAL-LIWELL s. v., Old-French *surmettre*, subst. *surmise*; *surpass*; *survey*, Old-French *sorvoir*; obsolete *survise*, *surview*, also *superwise*; *surfeit*, Old-French *sorfait* = excès; *surcharge*; — *surprise*; *surplice*, Medieval-Latin *superpellicium*; *surface*; *surcoat*, Old-French *surcot*, *sorcot*; *surquedry*, Old-French *surcuidance*; *sur-solid*.

Imitations with *super*, mostly with the meaning of going out

derstanding = mutual understanding &c. Adjectives: *connatural*; *collingual*; *coextensif*; *conutritious*; *cosentient* and the like.

contra, *counter*, *contro*, French *contre*, rarely *contra* (contradiction) and *contro* (controverse), Old-French *contre*, *cuntre*, Latin *contra*, *contro*. In Latin these prefixes were in general rare. Nouns, except parasyntheta, were unknown to it. French had from of old new verbal forms and nouns, rarely adjectives. English has adopted Latin and French compounds, and therewith attempted a few modern formations. The meaning of the prefix as of over-against in space is perhaps found in (*counterbalance*, *counterpoise*); commonly that of striving against and of hostile opposition lies at the root.

The compounds with *contra*, *contro* are the more rare: *contrapose*; *contravene*; *contradict*; *contrast* (French *contra-ster*, that is *stare*) c. der.; *contramure*, French *contre-mur*; *contravallation*, French *contre-vallation*; *contrafissure*; — *controvert*, comp. Latin *controversari*; *controvery* c. der.; more frequently those with *counter*, corresponding to French forms. Verbs: *countermand*; *counterpoise*; *counterfit*; *counterbalance*; *counterprove*; *countersign*; *counterseal* &c. Nouns are in part parasyntheta, yet others also: *countermine* (also verb); *countermarch* (also verb); *counter-mark*; *counter-revolution*; *counterpart*, compare French *contre-partie*; *counterrole* and *control* (French *contrôle* = *contrerôle*); *counterpoison* &c. Modern forms arise from Romance and Germanic fundamental words, rarely with *contra*: *contradistinguish*; *contraregularity*; *contraversion*; *contranatural* (rare); often with *counter*; verbs: *counteract*; *countermove*; *counterrole* &c.; *counterweigh*; *counterwheel*; *counterwork*; *counterdraw* &c.; Nouns: *counter-influence*; *counter-evidence* &c.; *counterwind*; *countertime*; *countertide* &c.

3) Adverbial Particles.

male, *mal*, French *malé*, *mal*, *man*, Latin *male*, evil, is used in Latin to compound a few verbs and nouns, in French also in modern forms. English has adopted from both tongues. Verbs: *maleficate*, French *maléficier*; — *maltreat*, French *maltraiter*; Nouns: *malefaction*; *malefice*; *malediction*; *malevolent*; *maledicent* &c.; — *malversation*; *malalent* &c. Occasionally *male* has a privative sense, as in: *malcontent*; *malcontentedness*. A few modern forms are likewise found: *malexecution*; *maladministration*; *maladjustment*; *malposition*; *malpractice*; *malformation* and the like.

The contrary to *male* is formed by *bene*, French *bien*, existing in English in a few Latin forms. Nouns: *benefit*, Old-French *bienfet*, *bienfait*; *benefice*; *beneficence*; *benefactor*; *benefaction*; *benediction*; — *beneficent*; *beneficial*; and parasyntheta, among them also the verb *benefit*.

non, French, Latin the same, not, un- rarely employed in compounding in Latin, as in *nonnemo*, *nonnullus*, *nonnihil* &c., is frequently used in compounding in French, still more frequently in English, which is the more striking, as there is here no scarcity of privative particles (comp. *un*, *in*). Comp. *non-age*, French *non-age*; *nonsense*, French *non-sens*; *non-payment*, French *non-paiement* &c. English compounds are not confined to Romance nouns, as:

non-entity; non-execution; non-appearance; non-episcopalian; non-resemblance; non-joinder; non-juror &c.; non-essential; non-electric; non-conforming; non-contagious &c.; but extend also to Germanic ones: *non-fulfilment; non-slaveholding; non-sparing* and the like. Even the verb *non-concur* occurs, as well as the parasynteton *non-suit*.

retro, French: Latin: the same, replaced in French compounds also by *arrière*, Old-French *arere*, occasionally *rere*, whence still in English *rear-ward; rear-guard; rear-rank; rear-admiral &c.*, partly, backwards, back, of motion, partly back, behind, in the relation of rest, is little employed in the Latin form. Verbs: *retro-act* (*retroagere*); *retrovert*; *retrospect*; *retrocede*; *retrograde*; with these, parasyntetic nouns and a few others: *retrogression; retroflex*. Imitations are perhaps: *retromingent; retropulsive; retrofract; retrofracted*.

pen, French *pén*, Latin *paene*, almost, nearly, in the Latin *paeninsula*, in French in a few imitated words, stands in English, as there, in substantives: *peninsula, penumbra*, French *pénombre*; and the parasynteton as a verb: *peninsulate*, as in the adjective *penultimate*.

for, Old-French *fors*, Modern-French *for*, Latin *foris, foras*, properly, abroad, is in use in Old- and Modern-French in several compounds in the meaning of out, and at the same time, in the sense of going out beyond the measure. The English has preserved *forfeit*, Old-French *forsfaire* (*forsfait*) with its derivatives: *forfeiter; forfeiture; forfeitable*.

vice, Old-French *vis* (hence English *viscount, -county, -countship &c.*), Modern-French *vice* and sometimes *vi*, is employed in French like *pro* in *propraetor, proconsul*, and in this meaning has passed into English: *vice-admiral; vice-agent; vice-legate; viceroy; vice-president; vice-chancellor; vice-chamberlain; vicerent; vice-consul &c.*; with parasynteta, as: *viceroyalty; viceroyship; vicegerency &c.*

Finally, the quantitative determinations *bi, demi, semi* are to be mentioned.

bi, rarely *bis*, French *bi, bis*, Latin *bi*, rarely *bis* in compounds, twice, double, is employed in Latin mostly in nouns (also in the verb *bipartio, bipertio*). In French the compounds of this sort are increased, likewise in English, particularly in the scientific language. Verbs exist not, save in the new form *bisect*. Substantives are likewise rare: *binocle*, French the same; *bireme; biscuit; bisextile*; else parasynteta, as: *biformity; bifurcation &c.* Adjectives are on the other hand frequent, partly derived from old words: *biennial*, Latin *biennis*, French *biennial; bimane; bimedian*, French the same; *bimenal*, Latin *bimestris; binocular, -ate*, French *binoculaire; bilateral*, French the same; *biped; bifid; bifronted*, Latin *bifrons; birious; biruleous, brouleuse*, Latin *bisulcus*, and many more. Modern forms are not wanting, as *biangular; biaxal; biradrate; biparous; bipolar; bifacial; bifoliate; bi-central* and the like, even *bifold*.

demi and *semi*, French the same, Latin *semi*, alongside of which French set the form arising from *dimidium*, for which *ais, mi* stand,

run alongside of each other in English in the meaning of half, as in French, yet *semi* is by far more frequent in English. Both belong essentially to nouns.

demi stood even in French chiefly in nouns, to which in English it almost exclusively belongs (*deaminated* excepted). Comp. *demi-lune*; *demi-bain*, imitated *demi-bath*; *demi-tint*; *demi-tone*; *demi-cannon*; *demi-culverin*, French *demi-coulevrine*. Compounds with Germanic fundamental words especially are imitated: *demi-man*; *demi-premises*; *demi-vill*; *demi-wolf*; *demi-devil*; *demi-semiquaver*; *demi-god*; *demi-goddes*; *demi-groat*. *demi-deify* is cited as a verb.

semi attaches itself immediately to Latin compounds, and sometimes takes the place of the French *demi*, as in *semi-diameter*, French *demi-diamètre*; *semi-column*, French *demi-colonne*; *semi-circle*, French *demi-cercle* and others. *Semi-arian*; *Semi-pelagian*; *semiped*, Latin *semipes*; *semitone*, French *semi-ton*, *demi-ton*; — *semi-annual*; *semi-lunar*; *semi-pagan*; *semi-barbarian*; *semi-vocal* &c. Among the modern forms is the verb: *semi-castrate*, some nouns, as *semi-transsept*; *semi-sextile*; *semi-diapason* &c.; and many adjectives: *semi-indurated*; *semi-acidified*; *semi-opaque*; *semi-osseous*; *semi-lapidified*; *semi-perspicuous*; *semi-formed*; *semi-fluid*; *semi-vitrified*; *semi-transparent*; *semi-crystalline* &c.

Plus is found in the form *plu* in *pluperfect*.

End of the First Part.

2